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ABSTRACT

This proceedings contains 60 conference papers and presentations on rural special education, disabled and at-risk students, and related matters. Topics include the Hmong and Southeast Asian immigrants in rural areas, special education service delivery in rural Kentucky, alternative funding for supplemental programs, reforming special education, dropout prevention, transition objectives, identifying and enriching rural gifted children, interactive technology to teach social workers about special-needs children, serving rural preschool and young children with disabilities, cross-age tutoring, sheltered workshops, parent involvement, multicultural education, use of negotiation and mediation in special education, mathematics activities for middle-school classrooms, adapting text to meet literacy needs of special learners, collaborative and shared services for low-incidence disabilities, career development of disabled students, rural-based technical education, team assessment of infants, best practices and exemplary programs, intensive family services for high-risk students and dysfunctional families, early childhood special educators, practitioner-college partnerships, strategies for the inclusion of special education in general education, quality television instruction, rural educational partnerships, establishing a rural professional development school, social skills instruction for adolescents with behavior disorders, distance learning, ethics in service delivery, teacher attitudes toward at-risk students, alternative certification programs in special education, recruiting and retaining special education teachers, interpretive single-subject research design, and ethnosociology of special education. Also included are a topic index, and an appended conference program and schedule that contains descriptions of presentations. (SV)

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The American Council on Rural Special Education (ACRES)
presents:

RURAL AMERICA - WHERE ALL INNOVATIONS BEGIN

Conference Proceedings

March 11-13, 1993 · Savannah, Georgia · Hyatt Regency Savannah

A symposium for rural and small school educators, policy makers, administrators, teacher trainers, special educators, parents, as well as health and service personnel

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The Hmong in Rural Areas: Critical Issues in Special Education

In 1989, Fresno, often referred to as the multicultural *Salad Bowl*, was the home of 40,000 refugees from Southeast Asia. These refugees are primarily Cambodian, Hmong, Lao, or Vietnamese (K. Yang, 1989). In 1975 and 1977, Vietnamese were the only Southeast Asians in Fresno with the exception of one Cambodian family (Yang, 1989). The migration of the first Hmong family to Fresno was in 1977. A year later there were three families and the following year there were a total of five living in the Fresno area. In a short two year span, the population grew to 7,000 Hmong and in another year, the population almost doubled to 12,000 (K. Yang, 1985). By 1990, Fresno County reported approximately 26,500 Hmong and a total of 47,000 Southeast Asians (Vang, 1990).

The major reason for the preference of the Hmong settling in agricultural Fresno is that in China, agriculture had been their mainstay. Originally from China and later migrating to Laos where they stayed in high mountain areas, they adopted a migratory method of farming called *slash and burn*. After decades of this lifestyle, they became almost completely self-sufficient and interacted, for the most part, only with their own people. To insure survival, many of their legends and folklore focuses on getting along and surviving within a majority group, while maintaining independence and identity (Blaitout,1988). In America, this same attitude prevails.

Until the 1950's, the Hmong language was oral with no written symbols. Their written language was developed by missionary linguists who used the ordinary letters of the Roman alphabet. The Hmong language is a phonetic-based written language system that is less than fifty years old. Before then, their history had been passed down verbally from one generation to another through legends and folklore. Literacy is a relatively new concept to the Hmong (Blaitout, 1988).

During the 1960's, the war developed in Southeast Asia, the Hmong gradually became forced to relocate into refugee camps. This resulted in their learning to depend on others for their survival. In these camps, their basic needs of food, clothing, shelter, medical care, and education was provided by the United Nations and other social service agencies. This created a dependency situation that has affected their motivation and the way they plan for the future (Yang, Koa 1989).

All of these background issues ultimately have had an effect on the interaction of Hmong families with our traditional educational system.

Cultural/Religious Values Areas of Conflict

Cultural Values

The Hmong have their cultural values and beliefs strongly rooted in ancestral worship, animism and group reliance (Yang, 1989). These values differ from American cultural values in many ways. A child reared in traditional Hmong values may experience conflict throughout their childhood. The gap between American culture and Hmong culture is especially apparent among girls. Gender is important to consider as girls raised in traditional Hmong values are not encouraged to be independent. They are not expected to be able to survive without having a husband. The roles of Hmong women are very different from current American women's roles (Blaitout, 1988).

Pitt (1988) stated that there are important cultural conflicts that are difficult to resolve. These conflicts are in a variety of areas. The Hmong practice of early marriage and bridal kidnap are in conflict with our American federal and state laws. Preventative medicine has been rarely practiced so there are many children that come to school without being vaccinated for diseases. Autopsies are incompatible with their religious beliefs, and in certain situations may be required by law. The Hmong have also functioned with their own judicial system and often do not understand American legal processes.

Child rearing practices of the Hmong culture differ from the predominant American society. Young Hmong children are held, carried, and allowed to develop in their own time. In contrast, American children are encouraged early in life to be independent and expected to develop according to established developmental time tables. Americans stress the importance of individuality, while the Hmong stress the importance of being like everyone else. Hmong children spend the major portion of their time interacting with other Hmong children and feel a status quo with other children. In contrast, American children spend a great deal of their time with adults and consequently think they should be treated as equals (Blaitout, 1988). As a result school behavior in Hmong children will usually be more compliant and non-challenging to adult authority figures than American children. This desire to keep all Hmong alike often results from attitudes of how to survive in a foreign society.

Southeast Asian children are often torn between the two cultures of traditional Hmong and American society. Even though they have made positive strides, K. Yang (1989) has stated that these children often have no role models, no study skills, limited access to resources within the educational system, and have to play multiple roles of being children, sibling, interpreter, student, peer advisor, community liaison, and cultural brokers.

Although cultural generalizations are difficult to support, there are some Hmong cultural characteristics that relate to childrearing practices. Even though discipline in Hmong families is much the same as in American families. It will vary according to the individual family. American parents strive for their children to achieve and to have a better life than they had. Hmong parents expect their children to repay a debt to the parents for having been born by caring for them (Blaitout, 1988). Some Hmong parents do resort to corporal punishment just as some American parents resort to corporal punishment. Hmong parents have used switches that resulted in bruises to discipline. They were totally unaware of child abuse laws and the role of California Child Protective Services. It is important in either case for educators to provide parents with instruction in more positive behavior management techniques (Blaitout, 1988).

To aid the parents is discerning what the issues are in child abuse versus spiritual healing. a federally funded project called Indochinese Child Abuse Prevention Project of Fresno was recently funded. It coordinates with The Fresno Parenting Alternatives for At-Risk Families Project (PAARF) that is specifically designed for Indochinese families, whose second home is the United States. The PAARF program addresses issues of truancy, lying, running away, disregard of others, disobedience and problems that arise when children acculturate faster than their parents (PAARF, 1989).

Religious Values

Religion and superstition play a big role in daily Hmong life. Hmong have a religious belief that a child's spirit can be carried away through various ways. Some school and social activities, that could accomplish this, are a child encountering a big dog, touching a snake, looking at a green tomato worm, having an accident on the playground, or a near death experience (Blaitout, 1988).

The traditional religious values are tied to the clan Shaman and trained Herbalists. These individuals diagnose and prescribe treatments and herbal medications for physical and psychological problems, illness and diseases. The Hmong traditionally have three main healing arts: (1) spiritual healing, (2) herbal medicine, and (3) body manipulation. The method of healing is chosen according to the diagnosis or belief of the cause of the illness. For example, illness that is caused by a supernatural being is treated by the spiritual healer or Shaman, which is always male. However, illness that is caused by natural phenomena is treated through herbal medicine and body manipulation. The body manipulation is still treated only by the Shaman, but the usage of herbal medicine can be treated by anyone who has learned the art, which is often women (Yang, K. 1989). It should be remembered that the Shaman is also considered as a psychologist and social worker within their clan and/or culture.

Yang and Moua (1987) and Yang (1989) cautions that the practice of coining or rubbing (Kav), scratching, pinching (Npaws), suctioning, and slapping (Zaws Npuaj) often leaves bruises and black and blue marks on the body. Figure 1 shows the effects of coining on the front and back part of the body. Figure 2 shows the effects of skin scratching while Figure 3 illustrates the areas targeted for slapping, which are usually on the upper arm. Pinching can be performed on many different parts of the body, but is usually on the periphery (see Figure 4). Suctioning for pain, as reflected in Figure 5, may be performed on the back and legs of the body in patterned circles to relieve pain in those areas. The head may also be suctioned as a method of eliminating headaches.

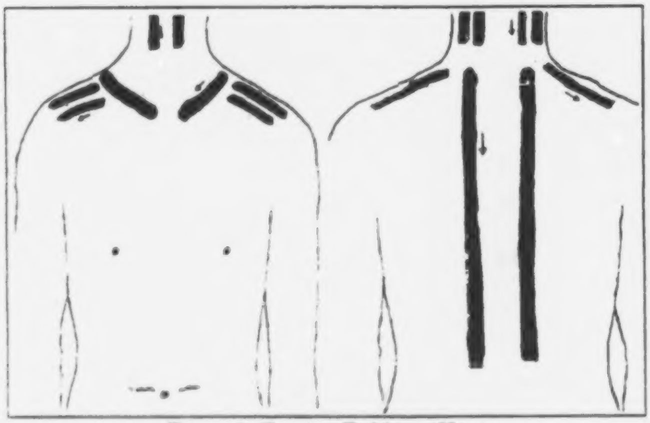

Figure 1: Coining/Rubbing (Kav)

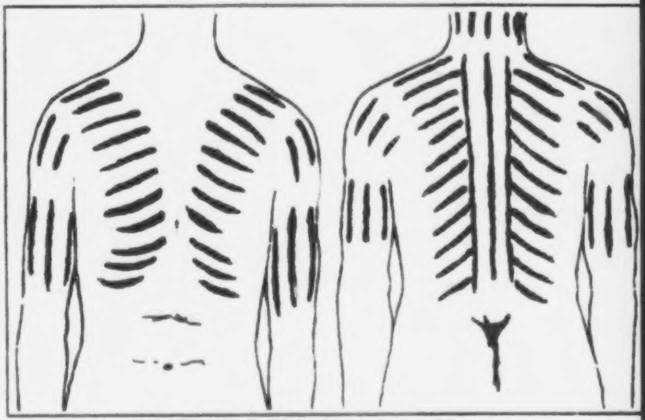

Figure 2: Skin Scratching (Npaws)

Note: Figures 1-5 illustrated by Henry D. Placenti, 1993.

All of the spiritual healing techniques often leave marks that can last for as long as two weeks. The Shaman believes that the darker the mark or bruise, the more effective the healing practice and that the

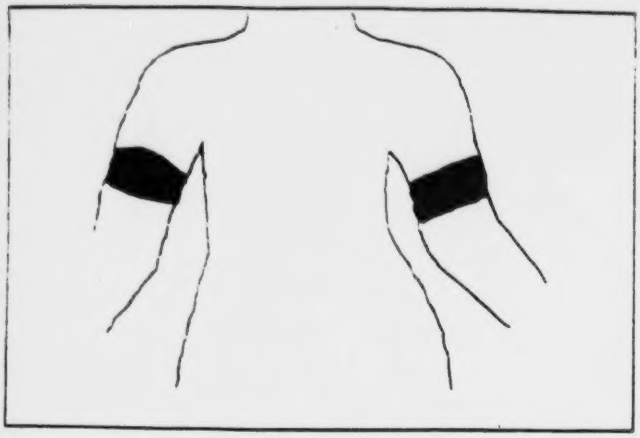

Figure 3: Slapping (Zaws Npuaj)

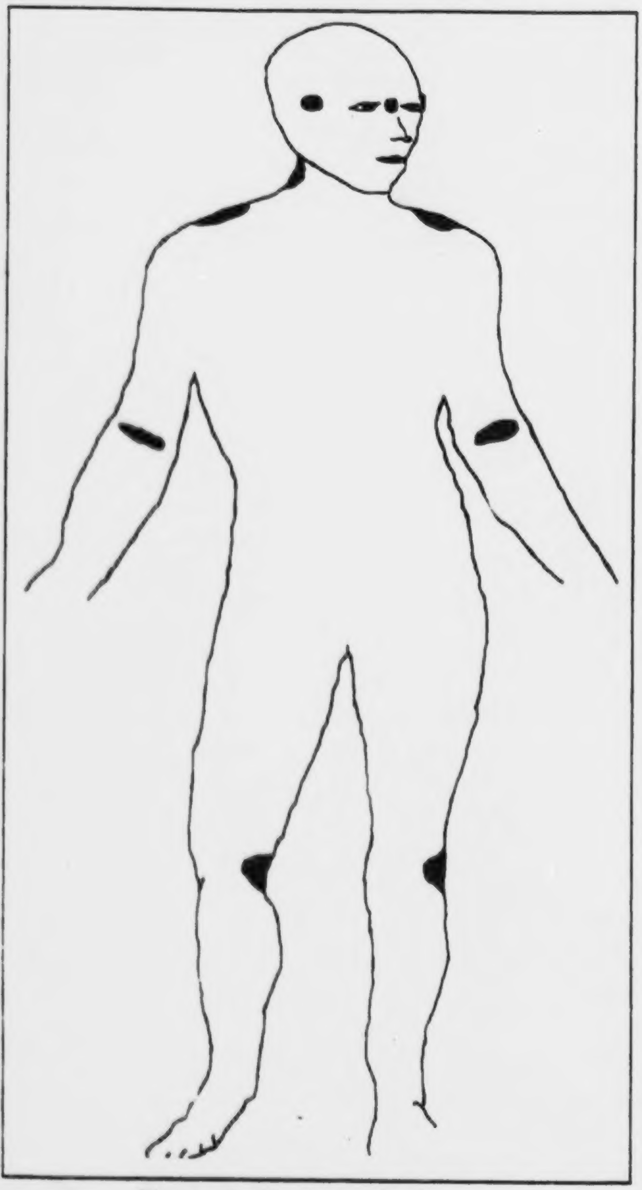

Figure 4: Pinching (Npaws)

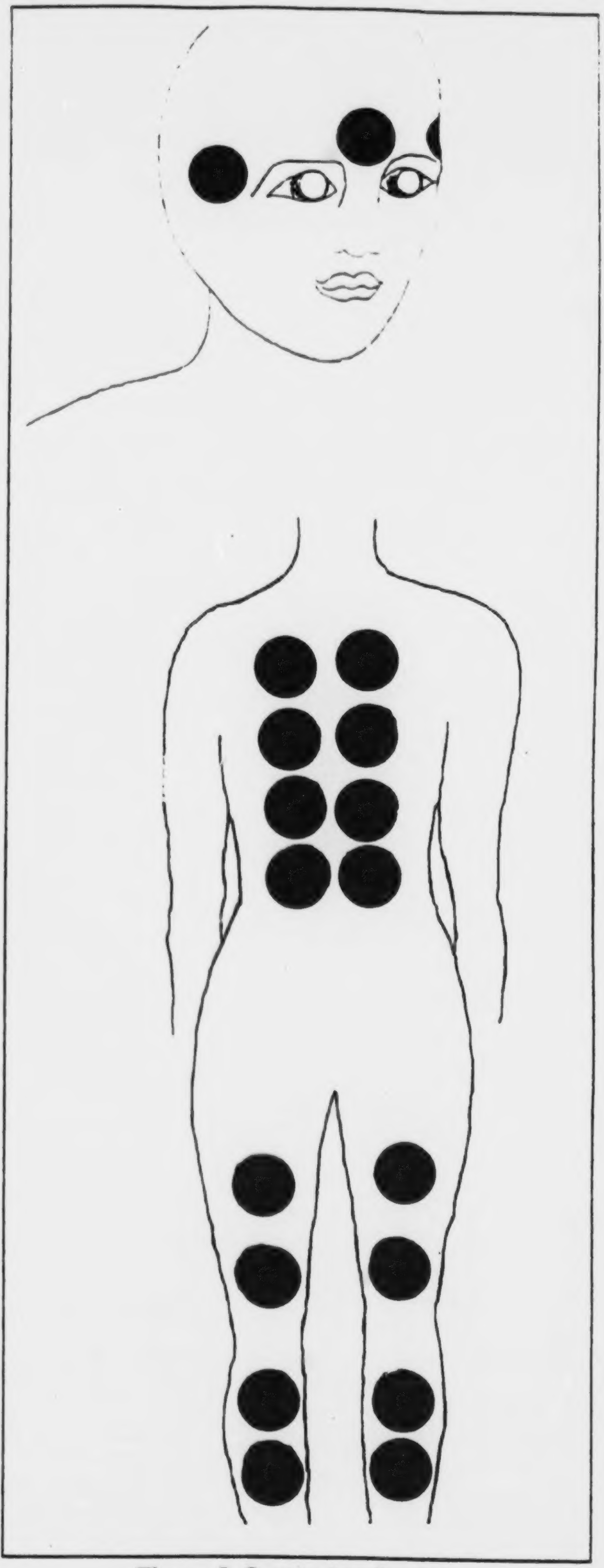

Figure 5: Suctioning for Pain

blackness of the bruise reflects the severity of the illness of the patient. The Shaman often will use these techniques to cure a child that he believes has a disease. Many children in special education classes have come to school with these bruises and the special education teacher has reported this, as required by law, to California Child Protective Services. Yang (1989) further cautions that school personnel should not be alarmed by these marks, for they are part of the healing process. By educators respecting these cultural differences, relationships between the Hmong community and the educational system can be greatly improved.

Areas of Conflict with Parental Attitudes toward Exceptionality

Special educators must be aware and sensitive to Hmong parental attitudes regarding children with special needs. The attitudes towards exceptionality may be greatly affected by their views on childhood development and religious practices. Their view that each child will develop in their own time (Blaitout, 1988) could be an obstacle to early identification and intervention. Hmong parents believe that a child's current functioning is all that the child is capable of being. They do not understand the concepts of child potential and performance. Their language does not provide for explaining distinctions between a child's potential to perform and actual performance. It is necessary for the special education teacher to explain the American concept that the current functioning of a child can be measured and improved through instruction. Even when using a translator, assurances must be provided when explaining this concept because it may not be fully understood for it cannot be translated into the Hmong language (Blaitout, 1988). The special education concepts of potential, intelligence, learning handicaps, giftedness, and under-achievement are difficult because they are abstract concepts that are not rooted in tradition. The Hmong deal in concrete terms, so time must be taken with parents to demonstrate other examples of successful children within the Hmong community.

Critical Issues In IEP Development and Process

The Hmong parents of school age children usually do not attend school activities because they either do not understand English or they come from a traditional culture in which personalized face-to-face contact is a way to communicate. School personnel should fully understand this concept and communicate in ways that are culturally familiar to Hmong parents. One of the major concepts the teacher should remember is Hmong parents do not respond to written or computerized forms of communication or invitations (Bliatout, 1984).

The coordination of a multidisciplinary assessment is critical to the eventual success of a Hmong student with special needs. The development of the assessment and eventually the IEP must consider critical cultural issues.

A major issue when evaluating special education assessment information is the age of the child. Hmong children born in the United States will usually have social security numbers and accurate birth certificates. However, Hmong children born in refugee camps will have an immigration document. The birth dates on these documents often are inaccurate. When in Laos, parents remembered a child's birth date as it coincided with events, such as a holiday or at harvest time. This tradition has not only caused difficulty for immigration officials, but has also caused problems for special education personnel. Exact birth dates could not provided or verified by families, so immigration officials would estimate birth dates. Naturally, this estimation has caused additional problems for special education when assessing the child because most assessment tools are based on age norms thus, the lack of an exact birth date would effect the test results (Blaitout, 1988).

In the area of health assessments, health screenings must address the fact that Hmong children, who have been born in the United States, may not have been exposed to proper medical attention. A child may be smaller than the expected norm due to poor nutrition and lack of medical attention. Childhood immunizations may not have been received and this may not be discovered until the child enters school (Blaitout, 1988).

Auditory screenings are of the utmost urgency as many children will have untreated ear infections that result in a hearing loss. Teachers should be on the alert for this, especially when a child is being screened for initial special education services (Blaitout, 1988).

When seeking parental consent for special education program placement consideration should be given to Hmong beliefs that children will develop in time and that a child will always be functioning at their current level. It would be advantageous for the special educator to replace the established approach of presenting the facts with utilizing the Hmong *grapevine*. The Hmong *grapevine* follows the Hmong tradition as a form of communication for spreading success stories. Within the Hmong community, the special education teacher could locate success stories of students with special needs and cite them as examples. A referral system might be developed to refer prospective student's parents to the parents of these successful students. Parents would be networked for purposes of discussing a child's placement and possibly forming a support group (Blaitout, 1988).

It is helpful for the special education teacher to remember the role of the Shaman in a Hmong child's life. The Shaman not only serves as the community's medical practitioner, but also as the family psychologist and social worker. When the school psychologist assesses the psychological functioning of the child, it should be remembered that the family is constantly consulting with their own psychologist, the Shaman.

When writing IEP objectives, learning strengths are always considered. Special Education teachers, when developing objectives for the Hmong child, should take into consideration methods that have resulted in successful learning in the Hmong population. Hmong language involves a great deal of patterning. They learn appropriate structure, vocabulary and *flower words* and then vary the text to give it a personal signature. Students with special needs must be taught in much the same manner. Memorization should pair auditory with tactile or visual channels. Patterned, rhyming, and rhythmic speech parallel traditional ways of learning information. Learning is best accomplished by active participation. The most productive teaching method would provide time to demonstrate, practice, correct errors, then try again (Blaitout, 1988). This teaching method merges well with established special education practices and would ensure the success of Hmong children with special needs.

Conclusion

In conclusion, there are three concepts to remember when working with traditional Hmong families and children. First, their lack of belief in performance and potential, along with the role of the healing arts and herbal medicine, is very important in Hmong culture. Second, their belief that their childrearing practices are very different from contemporary American society. Third, the Shaman's practice of medical and psychological diagnosis and treatment can be misconstrued as child abuse and in conflict with various state and federal child protective laws. It is only through understanding traditional Hmong practices that the special educator can provide the family and the child with opportunities for learning.

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Use of Alternative Funding by Rural Schools for Supplemental Programs Which Address Current Social Issues and Special Education Needs

THE PROBLEM

As state governments have found it necessary to reduce funds available for education due to a waning economy, many schools and school districts find themselves with increasing needs and decreasing resources. This problem has faced rural schools, frequently due to a sparsity factor and especially in special education programs, for almost a decade (Lockwood, A., (Ed.), 1991; Pine, et al, 1991; Helge, 1989; Helge, 1983; Marrs, L., 1983).

One option educators have is to look to alternative funding sources for the resources to meet students' special needs. Current social issues are often supported by specialized agencies or organizations that have particular interests in given areas. An example of this is the Health Promotion Bureau, Injury Prevention and Control Section, Violence Prevention Program of New Mexico which recently advertised for Violence Prevention Projects throughout the state.

One rural district, Gadsden Independent School District (GISD), responded with a Gang Intervention/Prevention Program. GISD has responded to its communities' and students' needs by seeking funding for early childhood programs, day care programs and expansion of the same, vocational education, transition programs, and partnership programs with communities and local colleges.

While GISD can draw on in-house proposal writing expertise and has experienced success in funding many proposals, some small rural schools may not have the in-house expertise needed for accessing external resources (interview with Dr. Jack T. Cole, March 3, 1993). The same difficulty faces GISD that many small rural schools face. The persons who have grant proposal writing skills have other duties which make it difficult to apply much time in seeking funding sources and writing proposals (interview with Dr. Jack T. Cole, March 3, 1993). Because of these gaps of time and skills, most private foundations', states', and federal funding go to larger school districts because they have access to professional proposal writers, often employing individuals whose sole responsibility is to prepare proposals for funds to serve areas of need in Special Education or to address pressing social issues.

EXAMPLE BACKGROUND INFORMATION

As a rural school district in New Mexico in the 1991/1992 school year, GISD was facing a unit decrease in per pupil funding. With increasing numbers of students and growing building and capital needs, as well as no salary increase for the staff in the last three to five years, this funding decrease added to an already strained budget. As solutions to this problem were sought, teachers and administrators increasingly looked for other sources for funding.

Several innovative grant proposals were written by the Director of Special Education, Special Education teachers, and diagnosticians. Several proposals were also written by the Director of Elementary Curriculum and Instruction, her staff members, and Administrative Interns from New Mexico State University (NMSU). Some of these innovative programs include: Mano en Mano (Hand in Hand), a project designed to provide comprehensive, one-on-one, in-home child development services to families with infants from birth to two years; Manitas Unidas (Little Hands United), a two to three year old Day Care program which includes typically developing children as role models; Greenhouse Burrito Company which serves the high-school vocational/special education population; El Retiro de los Artisos (The Artists Retreat), serving developmentally delayed adolescent students in a week-long summer artists' retreat; El Alma del Valle (The Soul of the Valley), an expansion of Mano en Mano which includes regular meetings of parents and trainers at a central site; Lectura y Technologia en Ruedas (Lectures and Technology on Wheels), addressing literacy for children at-risk; and Circulo del Culturas, Carreras y Idiomas (Circles of Cultures, Careers, and Languages), a program designed to offer Spanish, French, and Portuguese languages to district students for the promotion of multi-culturalism.

As the school district has been granted funds for many, but not all, of these projects, unforseen problem areas have emerged. This indicates a need for a policy/procedure/PLAN to be in place before grants or requests-for-funds are written. It does not indicate the cessation of seeking alternative funds, since they are important in answering specialized needs. But it does indicate a need for school districts, especially rural districts, to be aware of some of the subsequent responsibilities school districts may own, once funding is granted. Some grantors either request or imply a continuation of programs or projects they fund by the grantee picking up the cost and responsibility and carrying on with it.

Some of the costs include: hidden costs to the district in the form of providing housing and/or administration of the project; a need to evaluate it and to disseminate information regarding success or lack of it; an obligation to expand a project throughout the district; and indirect costs which include employer benefits, and as previously mentioned, continuing the program after the initial funding terminates.

Another area of difficulty has been that teachers perceive the special projects as additions to teaching loads. In some cases, this may be true. However, given current social issues, these may be integrated into a regular curriculum in Science, Social Studies, or Health, updating the instructional information, meeting students' current needs, and meeting basic competencies in one or more of these subject areas. Ways to integrate special programs with established competencies could be examined for each project or program proposed.

THE PROPOSAL

The purpose of the presentation is to discuss and/or illustrate:

1. reasons for seeking alternative funds;
2. current social issues/subject areas for which funding is available;
3. the funding search process, including the need to train staff and administrators within a school district or even in state-wide networks of proposal writers;
4. developing district and perhaps even state-wide grant writing procedures for optimizing school district planning and projections (and state departments of education) while meeting funding obligations with grantors and controlling hidden costs;
5. community partnership/team building.
6. building a grant writing team and writing the proposal;
7. when programs are funded, incorporation of current social issues programs into regular education curriculum by meeting the basic competencies in Social Studies, Science or Health, therefore, not increasing teaching loads.

DISCUSSION:

I. Reasons for Seeking Alternative Funds:

As each rural or suburban school district is unique, reasons for seeking alternative funding will be varied and even multitude. For the purposes of this discussion, these may include some of the following: drop-out prevention; gang violence intervention/ prevention; abuse prevention, substance and/or other; programs for gifted/talented students, including gifted special education students; transportation needs due to distances; teen pregnancy; cultural diversity and/or language differences; improving science and/or math instruction;

technology instruction: distance education; inclusion or mainstreaming programs; early childhood development programs; and professional development programs, to name a few.

II. Current Social Issues/Subject Areas for Which Funding is Available;

It will be impossible to list all topics, but the following are a few of general interest (Marchiony, 1991):

> minority women and girls; low income persons: women studying science or mathematics; ethnic minorities; technology for low economic areas; youth with special needs; early childhood education; parent involvement programs; encourage careers in engineering and computer science, and broaden access among women, minorities and the disabled to careers in engineering and management: solutions to the dropout crisis; community collaboration: enlisting parents as partners; bilingual vocational training; study of American pluralistic heritage; growth initiatives for teachers; teacher recruiting and preparation for science, mathematics, and engineering; and areas including English, Language Arts, Foreign Languages, International Studies, History, Social Sciences, Management, Mathematics & Computing, Science, Technology, and many more.

III. The Funding Search Process:

A. PLANNING -

The funding search process does not start with the search. For an effective project or program, the first steps must begin with strategic planning of the program and the organization necessary to achieve it. The careful planning-ahead process may have some of the following:

Step 1 - The Problem
  a. identifying the problem(s);

Step 2 - Diagnosing
  a. assessing the needs:
    i. time frame;
    ii. resources needed:
    iii. person(s) responsible:
    iv. target population;

Step 3 - Approaches
- a. establishing goals;
- b. determining objectives;
- c. considering alternatives

Step 4 - Taking Action
- a. deciding on a course of action;
- b. implementing the action;

Step 5 - Documentation/ Evaluation
- a. documenting the results of the program;
- b. evaluating the results;
- c. disseminating and/or expansion of program, if successful;
- d. discontinue, if not successful.

Upon presenting this information at a state-wide conference recently it has become evident that the planning may need to start **BEFORE** the proposal-writing team is formed at the site or building level. It may be necessary to train personnel of small rural school districts before anyone can start addressing a given project.

B. HOW TO FIND FUNDING SOURCES -

A good place to start looking is the local library, in government documents. Ask the librarian to let you see the funding sources directories. If you are close to a university or college, they will be able to help as well. Each department may have a funding source library concentrating on that particular discipline.

The U. S. Government has document depositories all over the nation. These are frequently located in university or college libraries. One is located at New Mexico State University in Branson Hall, the "Old" library. There are usually two or three depositories in each state.

Another source of information is The Foundation Center Cooperating Collections Network, where free funding information is available (see Addendum A). This library-like service makes grants and funding source information available throughout the country through over 180 cooperating collections centers. Catalogs of directories and guides are also available at these centers. It is possible to purchase one's own funding information library from the Foundation Center of New York City. The resource volumes can be purchased by calling (1-800-424-9830), but these cab be expensive for many small rural school districts. *The Grantsmanship Center Whole Nonprofit Catalog* is available free of charge to staff of nonprofit and government agencies by writing

P.O. Box 17220. Los Angeles. CA 90017, located at 1125 W. Sixth Street Fifth Floor, Los Angeles. California, phone number (213) 482-9860, FAX (213) 482-9863.

A subscription to *The Chronicle of Philanthropy* may be purchased by writing to 1255 Twenty-Third Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20337.

IV. Developing District Grant Proposal Writing Procedures for Optimizing School District Planning and Projections While Meeting Funding Obligations and Controlling Hidden Costs;

In an interview with Catherine Provine, Assistant Superintendent of Business and Finance, Gadsden Independent School District, February 9. 1993, the following points were discussed :

"It is critical that the grant proposals funded meet the goals and objectives of the district so that the budget will reflect those goals". Ms. Provine stressed. In order to assure this, during the process of developing the program and its organizational plans, it is important to "work with the budgetary people". It is best to make every effort to have the line-items of the proposal budget match the line-items of the district budget. If the proposal budget is standardized to the district budget (like-items), then, should it be funded, everything would be "ready to go".

It is important that the proposal writing team work closely with the financial staff. Whenever possible, proposals should address indirect costs when allowed by the grantor, to help defray administration costs of the grant. The team needs to be willing to perform the administrative end of the grant as well as writing the proposal, or locate someone who is willing to do so.

It is also critical that the contact person for the grant in the district share all the information received from the grantor with the financial staff. This will help to avoid unpleasant surprises such as financial reports "which were due yesterday". The financial staff must be aware of the reporting requirements up front.

Regarding personnel requirements, Ms. Provine recommended that as the planning progresses and the needs are identified, that the team create the job description for each position required to make sure that it fits into the established salary schedule(s).

A poorly planned grant can actually cost more than it gains for the district and can undo goals. objectives, and policies that the district has worked hard to establish (interview with Catherine Provine. February 9. 1993)

Rural districts may have to work harder at planning ahead. Planning and communication among district staff is essential. It is easy to become self-environment-oriented, and it is more difficult to have a district-wide perspective because of isolation due to distance, forgetting the needs of the rest of the district when one's own school's needs seem so immediate. It is harder to see the "global picture" from a site-based perspective.

Also, since many grantors have application dead-lines, one of the hard parts may be waiting for another year, when the timing is right. The temptation is to patch together a quick program, without proper planning, just to beat the deadline.

The importance of planning and communication cannot be over stressed. It can make the difference between a successful program or a patched-together substitute. A global view of where the organization is going is needed.

V. Community Partnership/Team Building

For optimum success of innovative programs in the schools, it is wise to take every opportunity to encourage the community served by the school to "buy into" the program. Ownership of the program is thereby shared and commitment is strengthened. In small and rural communities, the school is frequently the only social structure or center in the community.

Involving the community organizations and leaders takes careful and diligent public relations. This may take time to build. The emphasis on teamwork may be an important approach and focusing on the project, goal or need. Diplomacy in smoothing difficulties between personalities and counteracting power plays will be needed. At all times, the focus must be on the ultimate goal, that of serving the needs of the students, and thereby, the future of the community.

VI. Building a Grant Writing Team and Writing the Proposal;

Once someone becomes aware of a need in their field or area of responsibility, that individual discusses it with others at their school site. Several persons may take the idea to the building principal or site supervisor for discussion and/or to prepare a goal statement.

The principal or site supervisor authorizes and assists in forming and developing a team for planning the project or program. [This is a good time to get community members involved. Community members are a rich addition to the skills base of the team.]

During the planning, the team begins locating a funding source and writing the grant proposal. Some of the skills this group may need are:

a. background in, or willingness to research, the area of need;
b. grant writing experience or knowledge of where to get it;
c. funding source identification knowledge;
d. willingness to communicate with administrative departments and populations that will be impacted by the program;
e. willingness to volunteer the **time and effort** involved in seeing the project through to the finish;
f. select/elect a person who will be responsible for seeing the proposal through the process to completion and approval;
g. important steps to follow in the writing process:

    1. follow the format/procedures required by the Request for Proposal (RFP) which is received from the prospective grantor;
    2. proposal applications should include:
        - the authority of the applicant;
        - priorities, needs, strategies identified and addressed;
        - the population to be served described;
        - the geographic impact;
        - goals, objectives, and project activities;
        - evaluation design;
        - replicability and/or dissemination of product;
        - and previous years funded if appropriate.

g. the proposals should be submitted in typed form (hard copy) and possibly on a computer disk.

h. *"The final Request for Funding Proposal (RFP) should be reviewed by:*

    1. the building principal or site manager;
    2. Curriculum and Instruction (CID) (for final editing);
    3. Personnel, if applicable;
    4. Business and Finance; and
    5. Physical Plant, if applicable;
    6. Central Management Team; and finally
    7. The School Board.

    Review may take the form of initials from levels indicated in 1 through 5.

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VII. When programs are funded, current social issues programs may be incorporated into regular education curriculum by meeting the basic competencies in Social Studies, Science or Health, therefore, not increasing teaching loads.

A close examination of a district's current curriculum in the Science, Health or Social Studies, viewed from an assessment point of view (Pollard. 1991) may help restructure these subject areas. An example may be:

For the Social Studies Goal:

1. The students will learn to order their world in ways that will help them find personal meaning and become good citizens,

the Center for Dispute Resolution *Mediation in the Schools* program curriculum could satisfy the competency.

For Adolescent Health competencies, the Latino Family Life Education Curriculum Unit, *La Sexualidad* may serve more appropriately for certain localities in New Mexico. [This series contains four units, *Cultural Pride*, *La Familia*, and *La Communicacion*, which precede the sexuality unit, and may be suitable for other competencies of Social Studies or Health.]

CONCLUSION

Many rural schools can benefit from applying for alternative funding for special needs in current social concerns and issues. It is important, first of all to provide assistance and training to staff who will be writing the proposals. It is also important to be aware of the full scope of responsibilities which the school district administration may acquire once funding is granted. By READING the Request for Proposal from the grantor carefully and by working closely with the financial staff of the district, unpleasant surprises or unanticipated deadlines can be avoided. Since some funding sources require a continuation of projects with an increasing assumption of financial responsibility by the school district, financial provisions need to be anticipated BEFORE the proposal is completed.

To prevent unpleasant surprises, it is important for schools to be able to plan ahead and anticipate future consequences as well as benefits of receiving alternative funds.

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REFORMING SPECIAL EDUCATION

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Since 1989, the issue of school reform has been a hot topic for both general and special educators. Armed with the assumption that the current economic state of the country was the result of a decline in the quality of schools, the Bush administration proposed a set of sweeping reforms generally known as America 2000. While the usefulness of a set of national education goals is endorsed by both the educational community and the public, the most recent Gallup/Phi Delta Kappa poll on attitudes toward public schools clearly indicated that few (less than 30 percent on average) Americans have even heard of the six goals of America 2000 (Elam, Rose & Gallup, 1992). These goals are:

1) By the year 2000, all children in America will start school ready to learn.
2) By the year 2000, the high school graduation rate will increase to at least 90%.
3) By the year 2000, American students will leave grades 4, 8, and 12 having demonstrated competency in challenging subject matter, including English, mathematics, science, history, and geography.
4) By the year 2000, American students will be first in the world in mathematics and science achievement.
5) By the year 2000, every adult American will be literate and will possess the skills necessary to compete in a global economy and to exercise the rights and responsibilities of citizenship.
6) By the year 2000, every school in America will be free of drugs and violence and will offer a disciplined environment conducive to learning.

(U.S. Department of Education, 1991).

What do We Mean by Educational Reform?

To proceed with any discussion of "reform," it is important to first define and then operationalize the term. This may be one of the most difficult of tasks, given the current flurry of educational activities attributed to reform efforts - cooperative learning, the regular educational initiative, whole language, effective schools research, assertive discipline approaches, alternative schools, and others. Recognizing that all of these activities are arguably desirable to some degree, they nonetheless generally lack systematic application and tend to be here today and gone tomorrow (Fullan & Miles, 1992; Goodlad, 1992). As such, they represent "change(s)" but because these efforts tend to lack coordination with one another within the context of a clearly defined goal for the system, they do not qualify as reform. Reform may be better described as an integrated effort to focus not only on the structure and elements of the system but also to address the basic need to modify the culture, or the belief structure, of that system. Accomplishing this will require massive, coordinated change at the federal, state, local, school and community levels. One colleague prefers to identify the needed process as "transformation" rather than "reform" because of the more descriptive nature of the first term. Regardless of one's preference for terminology, however, the reform processes must bring about systematic and continuous improvement so that the current movement does not wither and die, leaving behind an increasingly alienated and cynical public which would harbor the belief that reform efforts are basically politically motivated.

How Might Education be Transformed?

In order to truly understand reform, educators must thoroughly recognize that they are dealing with complex issues and must deepen the way in which they think about change (Fullan & Miles, 1992). In order to bring about continuous improvement it is not sufficient to superficially state that we understand the change process. Instead, the basic knowledge of how successful change occurs should become internalized so that we may be able to habitually act upon such knowledge. Fullan and Miles offer seven themes associated with successful change:

1) Change is learning - loaded with uncertainty;
2) Change is a journey, not a blueprint;
3) Problems are our friends;
4) Change is resource-hungry;
5) Change requires the power to manage it;
6) Change is systemic;
7) All large-scale change is implemented locally. (Fullan & Miles, 1992).

These orientations toward change can clearly be seen to demand a fundamental rethinking of the process of reform.

One way of transforming management of educational planning is based on principles of quality management. Educators traditionally plan curriculum and experiences for students by first determining what goals, objectives, and outcomes are expected. This is a method of management that focuses on the final product, the student's skills. Such products are typically measured by some standards of performance (Holt, 1993). In the name of accountability, performance standards such as minimum competencies may be given as assurance that a student has mastered these skills.

A totally different approach to management, emphasizing the quality of the process rather than examination of the end product for deficiencies, was a major factor in the transformation of Japanese industry. J. Edward Deming's insistent focus on quality, for its own sake, throughout the process is the basis for the "total quality management" concept. Deming was concerned that change should occur as a way of facilitating necessary improvements, but not as an end in itself. Deming's emphasis on improvement throughout the process requires a fundamental rethinking of management in its applications either to industry or to education (Brandt, 1992; Holt, 1993).

True use of the principles of quality in management mean that quality emanates from top management and is pursued for its own sake, is defined by the customer or end user, and occurs through understanding and continuous improvement of the process. In addition, in the process of reform, each unit conducts a self-examination to develop an inventory of its own internal resources. Through the process of inquiry, theory and practice are brought together and solution of problems is considered to be an important task for all of those involved at all points in the process. An essential underpinning of Deming's quality management is that trust among all parties is vital, and that accountability as measured by typical methods of assessment tends to undermine trust (Holt, 1993). Management of the educational system, as a true application of Deming's principles of total quality management, thus can be seen to be revolutionary to the present management of educational systems.

In Education, are We Looking at Reform, or Simply at Change?

In practice, we are seeing several efforts in current reform movements. These, and others stated earlier, include the recognition and reward of excellence, cooperative learning, middle school movement, increased stress on accountability, alternative forms of assessing student behavior, emphasis on master teachers, achieving excellence through teams, encouragement of teacher autonomy and entrepreneurship, and school-business partnerships (Gallagher, 1991;

Herman, Aschbacher & Winters, 1992; Treffinger, 1991). Central to any discussion of school reform is the need to address the elements of restructuring, empowerment and change. Without simultaneous attention to each of these elements, critics maintain that the current reform agenda is doomed to failure (Tye, 1992; 1987). There appear to be widespread and deep deficiencies in understanding that the process of change requires continual improvement, regardless of the name of the bandwagon or wave of reform. Attempts at educational reform may result in change rather than in systemic transformation for reasons such as the following: 1) The big picture or map for how change is to occur is faulty (for example, use of top-down mandates); 2) Complexity of the problems is underestimated; 3) Symbols of change are valued over substance when an appearance of innovation is likely to bring about political success; (4) In response to the demands to quickly prevent crisis in the schools, impatient public and administrative officials accept superficial solutions that may create more profound problems; 5) Resistance from others is considered to be responsible for the slow pace of change, rather than being recognized as a need to affect attitudes and behaviors as a necessary element in the change process; 6) Attrition of successful reforms occurs in individual innovative schools whose districts or states lack an institutionalized understanding of innovation; and 7) Knowledge about the change process is misused in partial applications rather than as systemic transformation (Fullan & Miles, 1992).

We will explore dimensions of some of these issues. One such example of the dangers of superficial solutions is the narrowing of curricular scope to raise standardized test scores in response to the demands for accountability. Responding to these pressures, in the name of reform for schools and students at risk, results in legislation and policies impatiently implemented without adequate consideration for negative consequences.

The notion of restructuring is one that can be both attractive and threatening, depending on one's frame of reference. Many organizations, including educational ones, become enamored with the belief that all that is needed to improve performance is to tinker with the existing structure. As a result, committees are formed, lines of authority are reorganized, shifts of personnel occur, folks emerge with new titles which fit their renamed unit and someone inevitably displays a new organizational chart. With rare exception, after varying periods of disruption, the players fall back into the same routine activities. According to organizational theory, the reason that such attempts are often unsuccessful is that inadequate effort is made to institutionalize a new set of behaviors which are consistent with organizational expectations (Getzels & Guba, 1954). In short, the culture of the organization is not affected and ambiguity regarding expectations and roles inevitably leads to conflict. Such conflict may threaten the restructuring effort to achieve reform goals.

Current reform efforts in restructuring have revolved around the principles of decentralizing the decision making process and moving toward school site-based management. These aspects of reform lead toward greater autonomy and contribute to teacher empowerment and therefore exemplify a change of structure which is more compatible with the total quality approach. These restructuring efforts may be contrasted to the earlier "top down," 1980's policy prescriptions for change which might be considered as the first wave of educational reform. Such efforts were superseded by the second wave of reform calling for the effective schools movement (Holt, 1993). Some say, however, that even the practice of site-based management is insufficient. The change in structure alone is still a superficial reform; it permits schools, and perhaps teachers, freedom only to determine their own methods. The "all-important purposes of education remain the property of legislators, who turn them into 'standards' and hammer them home through assessment" (Holt, 1993, p. 386). Structural reforms can be politically correct, quick fix solutions which are "no substitute for the hard work, skill, and commitment needed to blend different structural changes into a successful reform effort" (Fullan & Miles, p. 748). In order to transform and empower rather than simply restructure, there is a need to critically examine the match between expectations for schools and current practice. It is essential that clearly defined goals for the unit have been jointly developed by all involved stakeholders. Only then can the management of decisions regarding program improvement occur. For this to happen, state authorities, local school district administrators, teachers, and consumers will have to accept a facilitative and involved role rather than the more traditional, directive approach.

Decentralization, of course, requires empowerment. Empowerment, if it is to be effective, involves abandonment of the top-to-bottom flow of authority and decision-making processes referred to earlier (Brandt, 1992). Empowerment also requires a massive change in the way we've traditionally conducted our educational business. Decentralization cannot be productive as long as decisions regarding what is to be taught and how success is to be measured, accountability, are centrally controlled (Goodlad, 1992). Empowerment without such accountability has the potential for counter productivity. Changing "control" issues requires that all players, e.g. administrators and teachers, acquire common group leadership, goal-setting, communication, problem solving and conflict resolution skills. Lack of skill development in these areas may be one of the biggest threats to current, decentralized, restructuring efforts.

Needless to say, significant change must occur for reform efforts to become reality. Conventional wisdom maintains that educators are resistant to change. Examining resistance to change makes little sense unless a corresponding review of expectations for teachers occurs. In his Phi Delta Kappan article, Kenneth A. Tye (1992) challenges this presumption. He maintains, and we agree, that the everyday demands of schools create a "grueling ordeal" for most teachers, too much is expected of them for too many students, resources are too few, and the pace may be too fast. Typical demands for teacher time include extracurricular activities, child and drug abuse programs, developing curriculum writing teams, dealing with discipline, a variety of testing programs, federal programs, implementing individualized education programs, at-risk and dropout prevention programs and the list goes on and on . . . . Change, most experts would agree, is a very time-intensive process, particularly when it involves group leadership, decision making and school-level management which are all characteristics of the current reform movement. Allocation of necessary fiscal and human resources and teacher support systems will require a renewed commitment on the part of both the public and school administrators if continuous improvement is to result. Failure to make this commitment may well result in the failure of the broader educational reform agenda.

What Reform Practices Occur in Rural States?

Exploring efforts of reform within the framework of the broader national reform agenda makes sense for those of us who function in states which are largely rural and for which small schools are the norm. West Virginia certainly meets the criteria for being considered both predominantly rural and for having a large percentage of small schools. Practices regarding the reform movement may not necessarily reflect national activities because of the rural nature of the service configuration in which such initiatives occur. In fact, two or more levels of reform efforts appear to occur simultaneously without an overall coordination function.

We have discussed, elsewhere, the need for a change in the traditional top-down decision making and policy development style so inherent to educational systems. Nevertheless, the state educational agency via the West Virginia State Board of Education continues to engage in a proliferation of policy statements designed to "guide" local school districts and individual schools toward national goals. At the same time, recent legislation established local measures such as faculty councils and school improvement councils as a means of empowering individual schools and communities in the decision making process. Still another tier of decentralizing effort has been engaged by the central office of local school districts in order to balance the level of control from the state agency, on the one hand, with that of the local school or community, on the other.

The net result of these three tiers of "reform" activity may be indeed contradictory to the basic premise of successful reform efforts. That is, grass roots efforts at producing a sustained attempt to implement best practices to achieve realistic goals might be sacrificed to the need to retain authority and control at the school district and/or state agency levels. An example of this dilemma is the current West Virginia effort to downsize school systems in terms of both the number of schools and the number of educators employed. State standards for optimum school enrollment, facility size, and staffing patterns have presented local school districts interested in reform with no alternatives to those which are prescribed. Non-compliance is "rewarded" by loss of funding. By the time individual school programs are restructured to fit the state agenda, empowerment in the form of decision-making regarding curricular and instructional issues has already been preempted.

Like many rural states, West Virginia has become engaged in establishing program accountability by means of the use of standardized, group testing results. Obviously, the state-level role in evaluation, as a means of establishing accountability, leaves neither local school districts nor individual schools the autonomy needed to meet goals within the specific needs structure of the educational communities they serve. Of course one of the largest criticisms of the America 2000 initiatives is the over-reliance on achieving world class standards by measuring competencies for all youngsters and only by group tests (Goodlad, 1992; Renzulli, 1991). It appears to us that this process may lead directly to a loss of differentiated instruction for individual students. The net result could well be that whole groups of students, both exceptional and non-exceptional, will be treated as a class rather than as individuals. For students who already resent the in-step process of traditional schooling, the result of applying national or state standards as measured only by national or state standardized competency tests is likely to hasten their departure from the system at age 16.

Where Does Special Education Reform Fit Within Broader Context of Reform?

Like many rural states, West Virginia has driven headlong into the regular education initiative (REI) (Maheady & Algozzine, 1991). Billed as the Integrated Education Initiative (IEI), this movement has been largely generated and promoted at the state education agency level (West Virginia Department of Education, 1992a) and is being implemented in a wholesale manner in many school districts throughout the state. In most of these situations, active resistance has been generated by general and special educators alike. Several reasons for these concerns are offered below.

Like in many states, West Virginia educators are typically not opposed to the concept of educating most exceptional students, whenever possible, with their non-exceptional classmates. However, those necessary elements which are positively associated with change may not be in place. For example, because of the relatively recent arrival of REI as an educational practice, the majority of inservice special and general educators, principals, supervisors and other service providers did not have training in the collaborative skills necessary to implement this model as part of their initial preparation. Almost without exception, major complaints from those teachers involved center around the common theme of identifying their respective roles and responsibilities in attempting to deliver integrated programs. As they seek help, many principals and supervisors appear nearly powerless to be of assistance to these teachers. Obviously, there appears to be a gap in the structure of staff development and/or continuing education in this regard.

Other barriers to inclusion tend to be more administratively driven. Unlike many states, student-teacher ratios in West Virginia tend to be greater for programs which are inclusive in nature (West Virginia Department of Education, 1992b). This seems somewhat paradoxical given the fact that, when integrating exceptional students, the accompanying collaborative needs are greater and consequently more time intensive! In a state in which funding cutbacks have become the rule, higher student-teacher ratios have reduced the total number of teachers required and have become an attractive administrative tool to use for staff reductions. This, of course, provides a short-term, "economical" solution to a set of very complex problems.

Still another barrier to implementing the current rush toward more integrated programs is the very organizational structure in which both the state agency and local school districts operate. The state agency, as is typical of many rural states, has been the primary mover behind the renewed emphasis on integrating exceptional student programs. This agency, while actively promoting integration is, organizationally speaking, very segregated. The special education unit is organized outside the general education units serving general and vocational programs. In most cases, the same organizational structures are found on a smaller scale in the local school district. It is not surprising then, that local school districts and the individual schools within them are resistant when nudged toward more inclusive programming!

Several of the efforts in the current reform movements have differing impact on the quality of service to different categories of exceptional students. The goals of America 2000 repeatedly declare that the focus is on all students. A broad focus on all students is related to efforts to detrack schools and is reflected as well by reforms associated with the excellence movement, such as cooperative learning, and perhaps some aspects of the middle school movement. Interpretations of practice and of the research on cooperative learning tend to result in widespread abuses of mixed group cooperative learning as a strategy when used with gifted learners (Robinson, 1990). Likewise, the middle school principle of emphasis on developmentally appropriate goals frequently derives from an over-emphasis upon generalized beliefs about age-appropriate needs with a lack of consideration for significant variation among different learners (Tomlinson, 1992). In practice, this focus on generic students frequently leads to setting standards where most expectations are then geared to a "typical" learner. This reflects insensitivity and a lack of understanding of the unique needs of students who are so exceptional that they are very significantly different from their age or grade mates.

Obviously, the majority of students involved with this movement toward full inclusion are either mildly involved in terms of their exceptionality or are gifted. When fully integrated, the expectation is that they will become totally immersed in the groupings and strategies appropriate to their non-exceptional peers. While this approach has a lot of surface appeal, it is our fear that whole groups of students, e.g. mentally impaired, gifted, learning disabled, behavior disordered, will be treated as a class rather than receive the individual attention, differentiated instruction, and modified curriculum appropriate to their exceptionality. This concern becomes magnified when one considers the implications of the march toward "full inclusion" for more severely and profoundly involved exceptional students.

Beyond the effects of inclusion of many students with disabilities, we see more severe implications for those students at the extremes of the intellectual ability range. We have seen efforts to integrate severely and profoundly mentally impaired students in a regular classroom on a full-time basis. Regular classroom teachers in our rural state are frequently inadequately prepared to appropriately differentiate instruction for many children with special needs. In fact, the emphasis on all children leads some administrators to insist that each child in a classroom will be working in the same textbook, and at the same pace. We see severe deficiences in services for gifted when such practices are associated with an effort to end ability grouping. There appears to be a widespread confusion between detracking the schools in the name of equity and an effort to end grouping students by ability for subject specific instruction, an empirically demonstrated necessary structure for gifted students (Kulik & Kulik, 1992; Rogers, 1991).

We maintain that because current staffing ratios for each placement are set by the state bias may enter IEP development and student services. This top-down approach is certainly inconsistent with the Deming-like approach cited earlier. Any setting identified in the continuum of alternative program options by the placement committee should be legitimate for an individual student, as long as the decision is supported by that student's assessment data and the IEP.

What Might the Future Hold for Reforming Special Education?

It is always interesting when one has the opportunity to speculate upon what may or may not materialize in the relatively near future. Considering the future direction of the education reform movement is exciting and perplexing.

Obviously, as one considers the future of America 2000, it is critical to examine the transitional effects of the new Clinton administration. As co-chair of the 1989 education summit in Charlottesville, Bill Clinton must have a bias toward support of America 2000 goals. Yet, if one examines his pre-election position (Clinton, 1992), some other emphases appear to emerge.

First, although he endorses world class standards, President Clinton leaves room to address disciplines other than English, mathematics, science, history and geography. This, we feel, is very positive. Coupled to this emphasis is a system of national testing which represents a centralized form of control that is incompatible with the decentralization of the school reform effort. This may well become a problem.

The second area of emphasis addresses preschool programming. Certainly this is desirable because it provides an entry-level opportunity to address the equity issues related to socio-economic, racial, and ethnic differences among students as well as a means to stimulate at risk children. President Clinton's discussion of safe, drug-free environments within school settings lacks direction, as if he recognized that such a cultural change must come about as a result of the educational process - no short term fixes here!

President Clinton's third area of emphasis relates to the increase of graduation rates to 90% by the year 2000. This is a lofty goal - one which is likely to occur only after a broad range of reform changes address the individual needs of students to the extent that those at risk see the relevance of the schooling process. Our fear is that the national testing process may well generate another lock-step standardization of curriculum and instructional processes which will stifle both students and teacher efforts.

Finally, the fourth Clinton emphasis addresses two areas. One element is the development of a system which provides any youngster desiring a college education the opportunity. Experience in a rural state with well below a 40 percent college-bound rate for high school graduates leads us to hope that more opportunities will be present for other post-secondary educational choices. The second form of opportunity relates to a proposed requirement for American business to earmark 1 - 1.5 percent of their payroll for job retraining. We doubt that the collective lobby of such enterprises will allow this to become a reality. Far more effective in the long run, we think, to involve the private sector on the front end by development of school-business partnerships more characteristic of bottom-up local school reform initiatives.

Keeping in mind that a reform plan was promised in the first 100 days of the Clinton administration, it will be interesting to see how education fares in the press of other national influences. Renewed problems abroad and other social reforms at home consume enormous amounts of time and energy. Pressing concerns related to health needs, unemployment, and the national economy will compete with the education reform agenda for attention.

As stated earlier, there are some aspects of school reform efforts which could receive more immediate attention. For example, it is important to recognize that grass roots reform efforts are occurring daily at local levels. Those already engaged in such efforts as decentralizing the decision making process, modifying curriculum and differentiating instruction resent charges of stagnation. It is important, however, for these efforts to occur in the context of transformation of the educational system. It is essential for the efforts to be designed to develop the processes needed to attain the desired goals. After all America 2000 only points out the direction, not how to get there! Yet a second key effort may be the diversification of instructional activities to meet individual student needs, rather than just those disciplines measured by standardized tests. This need for broader measures to satisfy accountability is especially marked for exceptional children. Finally, if any of the broader reform efforts are to be successful, it is critical that they be understood, and supported by the general public, the consumer group that will determine long-term success or failure. This aspect may well be the most challenging because it will require broad social and cultural changes which acknowledge the inherent worth of the educational process.

Reform efforts in special education are the most difficult to predict because they have tended to be somewhat transient when viewed historically. Some questions, thus, have not yet been adequately addressed. To what extent are all of the goals of America 2000, and of the concurrent reform efforts, consistent with best practice views for exceptional children? For example, can the noble goals of competency in challenging subject matter, of literacy, and of skill to compete in a global economy be translated into attainable goals for mentally impaired or other severely disabled youngsters? And, conversely, might the efforts to bring about these implied levels of proficiency translate into restrictions in the degree of growth for gifted youth? That is, we have seen attempts to set levels of attainable competency turn into pervasive practices of significantly lowered reading level in many adopted texts. This widespread "dumbing down of curriculum," perhaps in the name of equity, results in an appearance of competency for students at risk and a concomitant loss of appropriate challenge for students of average ability, and an extreme lowering of expectations for the nation's brightest students (Renzulli & Reis, 1991).

Nevertheless we see both some positive, as well as some not-so-positive movement in the field. Examples of positive changes associated with these reform efforts include expansion of, and accessibility to, special education services. We note that some local school districts have developed model interagency efforts to serve handicapped preschoolers which may be emulated at the state and/or national level. Regarding public education solely as the prerogative of school systems is an outmoded concept.

Another promising joint effort of the private and public sectors has occurred in many transitional programs designed to move special education students from schools to the community and the world of work. Most such programs began as grass roots efforts designed to meet individual needs long before the mandate for such efforts existed. These provide a starting place to pull together the constituencies necessary to make many general reform efforts successful.

At the other range of the exceptional spectrum we see a ripple effect into curriculum for regular education classes of practices which originated in services for gifted students. For example, Goal #5 is rightfully interpreted as a thrust to facilitate development of creative and critical thinking skills in students of all abilities, not only in the gifted (Treffinger, 1991; West Virginia Department of Education, 1992c). Likewise, we see a movement away from the special education paradigm of identifying students as eligible for gifted services and then only serving those students with differentiated curriculum. There is a move toward "talent development," providing differentiated, enriching services to a much broader segment of children so as to facilitate development of gifted behaviors (Renzulli & Reis, 1991; Treffinger, 1991).

Yet another positive effort is the emphasis on authentic assessment as a cornerstone of the education reform movement (Herman, et al. 1992). A heightened emphasis on alternative forms of assessment which use tasks that reflect meaningful instruction, real products, and higher levels of thinking are spreading through regular education. Innovative practices such as writing across the curriculum and whole language instruction tend to use, for example, portfolio assessment. Such practices as curriculum based assessment are increasingly occurring in special education for instructional planning purposes. We predict that there will be an increased movement in special education to use such informal and other alternative assessment procedures which can obtain much fuller pictures of a child than an over-reliance upon standardized measures alone for purposes of eligibility determination (Frasier, 1992).

We predict that inclusion, particularly "total inclusion" models, may well be the single greatest special education-related issue for the next 3-5 years. Lack of planning, staff development at all levels, and examination of empirically based data on best practice for some of the exceptionalities tends to threaten progress toward successful programming for students for whom an inclusion model is appropriate. Central to our concern is the growing tendency to treat exceptional students of all ability levels as a class rather than as individuals with unique and differing needs. This poses a threat to the basic presumption that appropriateness of programming and the differentiation of instruction is the foundation for special education. Within the context of our consideration of reform efforts, this trend represents a movement away from a quality-oriented system of program management and toward the classic top-down methods so widely criticized by Deming and others. Our hope is that the pendulum will swing back toward individualization. We just hope that the potential for negative consequences of some current practice can be minimized before that occurs.

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LEARNING VISIONS

We have a VISION of the children of Jackson County LEARNING the knowledges, skills and attitudes necessary to complete high school and become adults who can EARN a living for themselves and their families.

I. INTRODUCTION

LEARNing Visions is a partnership project between the Jackson County (TN) Schools, businesses in Jackson County, Tennessee Technological University, and Visions Five. Jackson County is located in upper eastern Middle Tennessee on the western highland rim of the Cumberland Plateau, a part of the Upper Cumberland region in Southern Appalachia. The Upper Cumberland region, which as been recognized as a distinct physiographic and cultural region since the nineteenth century, consists of twenty-five counties in upper eastern Middle Tennessee and south central Kentucky equidistant from Nashville, Knoxville, and Chattanooga. The population is undereducated with a high unemployment rate and a low per capita income. The dropout rates for the schools in the region have long been among the highest the nation.

Jackson County was settled by hardy farmers and woodsmen. The bottom land around the river was lush and good farm land, but the hillsides were rocky and difficult to farm. The woods were full of a variety of game to be hunted and trapped, and the river provided good fishing and trapping.

It was the river, however, that was the basis of the local economy. The river ran through Gainsboro, the county seat. Gainsboro developed into a center of the local economy, the place where the hill folks, the bottom-land farmers, and the trappers came to barter and to trade. Staples and evolving necessities were unloaded from boats on the river, while local crops and furs went up and down the river.

Over time, Gainsboro and Jackson County profited and grew. Banks and stores were built, and became permanent and vital parts of the community. Many children attended good local schools, went off to college, and returned to be doctors and lawyers and professionals. It was a good place for many to raise a family. It was a place almost isolated from the ills of the outside world.

Over time, the world came in and Jackson County went out. Cookville, just over the hill in Putnam County, developed into a big town and provided employment opportunities. Tennessee Tech in Cookville grew and provided opportunities for entry into the larger world. The interstate was just up the hill (it ran through Cookville), and Nashville was now in commuting distance, not a day's trip away. The lush bottom farm land was lost to a federal project and many families moved out. The river traffic was lost to roads and rail, and to larger towns.

Jackson County lost many of its better educated children to the opportunities of the world. But, to much of the world, Jackson County was an opportunity. Land is cheap and so is the cost of living. Housing projects provide affordable shelter. The wooded hillsides provide isolation and privacy.

Many families move in to get away form the crime and violence of the city. But they, like many of the remaining families in Jackson County, are often undereducated and unemployed. Much of Jackson County today must eke out a living like the original pioneers who came over the hills and down the river. But the world has changed, and the requirements for survival, particularly economic, are greater today than they were then.

II. NEED FOR THE PROJECT

Jackson County has a low per capita income ($9,162), a high unemployment rate (8.1% in January 1991), a low educational level (67.5% of adults 25 and over in 1980 were not high school graduates, and a limited economic base as reflected by the low per pupil expenditures for education ($3,102). Of all families in Jackson County, 22.4% are below the poverty level; 24.9% of individuals in the county are below the poverty level.

Dropout Data

The following data represent the children who dropped out of the Jackson County schools during the five recent academic years.

Graduating Class	Number in Seventh Grade	Number who Graduated	Percent who Dropped Out
Class of 86	116	104	10.34%
Class of 87	134	84	37.31%
Class of 88	118	83	29.66%
Class of 89	129	96	25.58%
Class of 90	124	85	31.45%

For 1989-90, the Tennessee Department of Education reported a dropout rate of 24.2% for Jackson County. Historically, Jackson County has had one of the highest dropout rates in Tennessee.

Socioeconomic Data

The economic distress of Jackson County is reflected in the percentages of students qualifying for free and reduced price lunch. Totaling free and reduced price students yields a total of 56% of the students qualifying. In 1989-90, 42.0% of the students in Tennessee qualified for free or reduced price lunch.

School	Free Lun No/%	Red. Lun No/%	Pay Lun No./%	Total Students
Gainesboro Elem K-4	209/46%	74/16%	170/37%	452
Fox Middle 5-8	158/42%	61/16%	154/41%	373
Dodson Branch K-8	38/54%	14/2%	18/26%	70
Jackson Co HS 9-12	128/32%	51/13%	227/60%	406
Jackson County Schools	533/41%	200/15%	569/44%	1301

Indicators of At-risk Population

In addition to the dropout rate and the socioeconomic indicator of lunch status, data are available which further document the at-risk nature of the student clientele of Jackson County. The following data are for the 1990-91 school year.

School	Special Education	Chapter I Reading	Chapter I Math	Vocational Program
Gainesboro Elem (K-4)	80/18%	88/19%	59/13%	-
Fox Middle (5-8)	50/13%	112/30%	124/33%	-
Dodson Br. (K-8)	11/16%	19/27%	12/17%	-
Jackson Co High(9-12)	33/8%	0	0	88(VocSch) 297(JCHS)
Total	174	219	195	385

In 1989-90, 14.8% of the students in Tennessee were in Special Education, 11.9% were in Chapter I programs, and 46.1% of secondary students were enrolled in vocational education classes.

According to a survey completed by Jackson County students in grades 6-8 during the spring of 1990, a high percentage of parents have less than a high school education. The educational levels of parents are of more concern when compared between poor students (students qualifying for free or reduced price lunch) and parents of other students.

Educational Level	Fathers of Poor Stu.	Fathers of Others.	Mothers of Poor Stu.	Mothers of Other
Less than high school	26.62%	2.13%	20.81%	6.25%
Some high school	25.6%	18.44%	34.90%	16.78%
High School Graduate	32.37%	52.48%	31.54%	49.65%
Some College	5.04%	13.48%	7.38%	10.49%
College Graduate	2.88%	13.48%	5.37%	16.78%

According to the 1990 census the population of Jackson County is 9,297, of which 9,247 are white, 7 are black, 19 are Indian, 19 are Asian, 38 are Hispanic, and 5 are other. There are no students in the schools who identify themselves as minority.

III. DESCRIPTION OF THE PROJECT

LEARNing Visions is a K-12 intervention program for at-risk Upper Cumberland youth. It includes curriculum enhancement and modification of instructional strategies K-12, a culturally sensitive approach to monitoring and encouraging school attendance, parent education, and enhanced social services delivery to school-age children and their families. The project was designed by a committee consisting of Jackson County Schools administrators, teachers, parents, TTU Director of Rural Education, and the chief executive officer of Visions Five. All schools in the system participated in the planning process. The Tennessee facilitator for the National Diffusion Network assisted in the identification of validated programs to meet identified needs.

The project integrates a variety of strategies, some which have already been successfully initiated on a limited basis in the system for which there are inadequate resources to provide them at the needed level, replication of selected validated projects from the National Diffusion Network, one program now being used in an adjoining school system, and some new strategies designed to supplement and complement the others. It is envisioned that these carefully selected components will have a synergistic result of changing at-risk students attitudes toward themselves and school and providing a comprehensive K-12 experience that meets their academic and personal development needs.

The project builds on a previous dropout prevention effort implemented with Appalachian Regional Commission support at Fox Middle School but is much broader in scope, more comprehensive in approach, and addresses all students in the school system. It reaches out into the community to families and their needs as a vehicle for keeping children in school. Unlike the previous project which was based primarily on subjective assessment of student needs and program deficiencies, this project is designed around needs identified in a major research study of characteristics of rural youth (See list of references.) and substantial input from teachers and parents in the planning process. The research study will be used as base line qualitative and quantitative data for project evaluation and for the longitudinal study of students proposed as a part of this project.

The goal of this project is to reduce the number of young people in Jackson County, Tennessee, who do not complete their elementary and secondary education by reducing the number of students dropping out of school. The project is focused throughout the Jackson County School System and includes each of the four schools: Jackson County High School, Fox Middle School, Gainesboro Elementary School, and Dodson Branch Elementary School and the Adult Education Program. The project is a comprehensive, coordinated effort to impact school change throughout the system to increase the effectiveness of the schools in meeting the needs of an at-risk clientele. The project builds on data collection for at-risk student identification already being developed.

Project Components

LEARNing Visions has six major components built around specific project objectives. While each component may be described separately, the components interface within the context of the school and community to create an environment in which all students in the system may access project services related to their particular needs.

Component I: School Attendance. The first priority of the project is to ensure that all students attend school regularly. The project employs an attendance monitor who checks with each school each day to determine absentees. A telephone call to each home follows to determine the nature of the absence. If the absence is legitimate, assistance in determining missed assignments, delivery of school materials, referrals to social/ health services and other appropriate positive interventions are offered. Students are encouraged to return to school as soon as possible. If the absence does not appear to be legitimate, a discussion is held with the parent about the importance of school attendance. Chronic absentees are referred to the Attendance Supervisor. At the middle school, in-school suspension is provided as an alternative to suspension. Pregnant teenagers are identified and provided assistance in obtaining needed social services, transfer to home bound instruction during critical periods, and encouragement to return to school as soon as possible. A journal is maintained on each child, recording all attendance contacts with the child and family. This longitudinal record is useful in working with families when patterns of dysfunction are detected.

Component II: School Achievement. Once students are in school, efforts are made to help them be successful in the academic program. The nature of academic interventions differs from school to school but in each case includes the services of a full-time teaching assistant, curriculum enhancement, and faculty staff development.

At Gainesboro Elementary (K-4) the project teaching assistance moves from classroom to classroom working with individuals and small groups of children who request help or whom the teacher identifies as needing extra help. Often this help is requested for students who have been absent and are behind with their work. The teaching assistant also conducts early morning tutoring sessions for students needing assistance. The Comprehensive School Mathematics Program (CSMP) has been implemented in all grades and the teachers have begun staff development in whole language.

At Dodson Branch School (K-8), the teaching assistant works with students at one grade level while the classroom teachers work with another grade level in these multi-grade classrooms. As at GES, the assistant provides individual student assistance and early morning tutoring. The curricular programs that have been added at DBS include Comprehensive School Mathematics Program and Study Skills Across the Curriculum.

At Fox Middle School (5-8), the teaching assistant directs student activities in a computer learning laboratory and supervises students on in-school suspension. Students are referred to the laboratory by teachers or request to attend. ERIC abstracts and an encyclopedia are available via CD Rom. Academic assistance is provided two mornings a week by the teaching assistant and a teacher. Curricular additions at Fox include Study Skills Across the Curriculum, Project Discovery (pre-vocational training), Saxon Mathematics in pre-Algebra and Algebra, and Strategic Reasoning. Staff development on cooperative learning is this year's focus.

At Jackson County High School (9-12), the teaching assistant directs student activities in a computer learning laboratory similar to the one at Fox. In addition to the academic software purchased through this project, the laboratory also includes eight terminals networked to a microprocessor housing an integrated learning system. The teaching assistant and teachers provide after school academic assistance. Saxon Mathematics has been implemented in the algebra classes. Selected faculty have been involved in the study skills and cooperative learning staff development. Through another project, two teachers are conducting an experimental biology/Algebra II project teaching prescribed content around the study of water quality in a nearby stream.

During the summer, a summer school program is provided for remediation and enrichment. The enrichment includes the study of and travel to sites of scientific and historical interest.

Component III: Parental Involvement. In a community in which the majority of the adults are not high school graduates, parents are generally reluctant to become involved in the schooling of their children. An on-going thrust of the project is to inform parents of school endeavors, create a school climate welcoming to parents, and involve parents in increasingly meaningful ways with formal education. Specific activities include regular newsletters from each school and the project, a parent coffee at each school for the parents of new students (K at GES and DBS, 5 at Fox, 9 at JCHS, and transfer students), parent education events at other functions, and regular communication between parents and teachers. The goal is that each parent will receive one positive communication about each child during each grading period. The frequent telephone calls from the project attendance monitor have also been useful in establishing dialogue with parents.

Component IV: Counseling Services. The project has enabled the school system to employ an additional counselor. As a result, there is now a full time counselor at JCHS, a full time counselor for K-4, and a full time counselor for 5-8 (These two counselors share responsibility for DBS). In addition a private counselor has worked in the schools for one or two days a week conducting small group sessions and meeting with students who have requested help in major personal problems. The additional counseling services have moved from crisis intervention toward and increasing emphasis on crisis prevention through conflict resolution, early intervention, and freer access to counseling. The counselors at each school use a variety of media to teach such topics as self-esteem, drug abuse prevention, interpersonal skills, career awareness,

Component V: Career Awareness and Preparation. A previous study of middle school students had shown that these students had unrealistic perceptions of careers available, life styles associated with various careers, and the education and training requirements for particular careers. Efforts to correct those perceptions include use of a pre-vocational exploratory program in grades 5-8. Originally it was planned for most teachers to integrate one or more of the program modules into their instructional program. When that did not work as well as desired, a member of the business community was brought into the school on a part-time basis to implement a career exploration mini-course using prepared modules and his own experience. Other members of the business and professional community participate in the annual middle school Career Day. Apprenticeship programs for high school students in the community's business incubator project are being explored. The guidance staff includes a variety of career aptitude activities and career awareness presentations in their group counseling program. Several cooperative programs are being planned with the TTU Career Equity Center.

Component VI: Coordination of Social Services for Children and Parents. Historically, rural school personnel have been largely ignorant of available social services and how to access those services for students. Rural social service agencies have tended to stand behind their responsibilities for client confidentiality to the extent that communication between school personnel and agency personnel was limited and non-functional. One primary responsibility of the LEARNing Visions Project Director has been to determine what services are available, learn and publicize the procedures and requirements for accessing those services, and determine any services which are needed but unavailable. This has been a slow process but is bearing fruit as the various personnel involved are beginning to communicate more openly within the constraints of their positions, discuss problems of children and families, and work together to match services with needs. At this point the LEARNing Visions staff knows who to contact given any particular set of circumstances, and agency personnel respond appropriately.

The assumption is made that it is not the responsibility of the school system to provide social services, but it is its responsibility to facilitate the access of needed services. Two social service roles for which the project staff is assuming a more active role include creating a clothing bank and forming a support group for students who are pregnant or who have children.

IV. Current Status of the Project

LEARNing Visions is halfway through its second year of operation. Two additional years of federal support are possible. At this point, the following observations might be made.

1. The project has been integrated into the school system and is recognized as a part of the institution. Project staff are no longer strangers in the schools. Students and teachers understand their role and seek them out for appropriate needs.

2. The technology which this project has purchased combined with that available through another project has made a significant impact on the resources available to students at the high school and the attitudes of some students toward learning. Students stand in line for access to the integrated learning system and the reference materials on CD-Rom.

3. While reaction to each curricular innovation is different, the study skills program and the new secondary mathematics program are the most successful.

4. Student attendance has improved. Students and parents know that if a student is not in school, that absence will be questioned immediately and there will be consistent follow-up.

5. Communication strategies with parents are appreciated. Newsletters, teacher positive telephone calls, and the beginning of school coffees are making the parents feel more involved and more comfortable.

6. The teaching assistants and tutoring program are effective in providing extra help to students as soon as needs are identified. There is no time-consuming referral process and teachers are not burdened with the responsibility for students who have been absent.

7. The investment of time and energy in building bridges with social service agencies has enhanced the image of the schools with those agencies and has enabled student and family needs to be met more quickly and more effectively than in the past.

8. The project is allowing longitudinal access to this at-risk population to enable the project consultant and evaluator to learn more about the causes of school dropouts in a depressed rural community. This is part of a larger study involving rural students in other settings.

9. Although extensive staff development has been conducted, many teachers continue to teach as they always have with little visible impact from the efforts made. It is too soon to predict the impact which whole language and cooperative learning will have in the schools.

10. Basic attitudes of families, students, and teachers toward the education process are changing slowly as a result of the project. It is at that level that change must occur if the dropout problem is to be solved.

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UNDERSTANDING OUTCOMES FOR EMOTIONALLY IMPAIRED STUDENTS

OUTCOMES FOR SPECIAL EDUCATION

The focus of this paper will be to raise the reader's understanding of Educational Outcomes and their potential impact upon on special education students, in particular those with emotional or behavioral disabilities.

To accomplish this goal, in the first section of this paper a working definition of an Outcome will be presented along with the need for Outcomes development in the context of special education. In the second section of this paper the suggested **Program Outcomes for the State of Michigan** will be presented. Finally a practical application of these Outcomes will be presented.

WHAT IS AN OUTCOME?

As defined and understood Outcomes are broadly stated goals which describe the student's expected competencies when they have finished either their entire educational career or a portion of that career (e.g. completion of the middle school years). The very nature of the Outcomes drives the educational process toward a more integrated performance oriented system.

Spady and Marshall define Outcomes in the following manner:

> "What is most essential for our students to know, be able to do and be like in order to be successful once they have graduated. (Spady & Marshall 1991)"

They elaborate further by stating that "an Outcome is a successful demonstration of learning that occurs at the culminating point of a set of learning experiences" (Spady & Marshall 1991).

For purposes of defining their Core Curriculum Goals, the State of Michigan utilizes the following definition:

> Outcomes are desirable learnings which students will need in order to select and effectively function in their life-career roles of workers, family members, citizens, students, and self-fulfilled individuals. An educational outcome is defined as a statement of a student

> performance as a result of an educational experience. (State of Michigan 1991).

In both definitions it can be clearly seen that the end product remains in focus at all times and that the goal is always student-need centered.

Outcomes go beyond merely providing a focus for student development. They in fact can and should drive the entire educational endeavor. Spady & Marshall (1991) describe the following four principles the Outcomes adherents work to follow:

1. Ensure Clarity of Focus on Outcomes of Significance. Culminating demonstrations become the starting point, focal point, and ultimate goal of curricular design and instruction.
2. Design Down from Ultimate Outcomes. Curriculum and instructional design inherently should carefully proceed backward from the culminating demonstrations... thereby ensuring successful culminating demonstrations.
3. Emphasize High Expectations for all to Succeed. Outcomes should represent a high level of challenge for all students and all students should be expected to accomplish them.
4. Provide Expanded Opportunity and Support for Learning Success. Time should be used as a flexible resource rather than a predefined absolute in both instructional design and delivery.

In understanding the above it becomes clear that those who choose to implement a program based upon outcomes must reexamine all aspects of their program. Nothing is taken for granted as being acceptable. All areas, programs, and courses must contribute to student's making progress toward achieving the ultimate goal.

WHY OUTCOMES IN SPECIAL EDUCTION?

In preparing the Suggested Michigan Outcomes for Special Education** the researchers noted the following:

1. Children with Emotional Impairments have, traditionally been underserved when compared to children with other disabilities.
2. Programs for Children with Emotional Impairments have not been evaluated positively. Indicating a poor quality of service for such students.

3. There exist a general lack of standardization in behavioral/theraputic approaches. This lack of standardization makes research on program effectiveness difficult.

The above issues highlight a two tiered problem when dealing with children who have emotional impairments. On the one hand there is little agreement as to what is needed to help individual students, and on the other, there is little upon which to base a focused effort for all students.

There exists in literature and research a plethora of intervention models. Unfortunately, no one model has proven itself successful in dealing with all of the varieties and combinations of emotional & behavioral impairments within the school setting. As a result those in the field have developed highly individualized and eclectic approaches in dealing with the problems as presented. This results in taking a highly individualized approach to each student which, on the negative side, often results in a shortsighted myopic view of student needs. The teacher or the program ends up planning only for the day or at best a single school year. This is often done without respect to the long term needs of the student when compared to all other students with whom they will be in competition with when they leave the school setting. The lack of an overall framework or set of expectations from which to work encourages such shortsighted responses.

If, as the researchers noted above assert, there is a lack of standardization in programs for students with emotional problems then the shortsighted planning described above must contribute negatively to the process of serving this group of children. Individual services to students should be driven in part by what is needed to be successful in society after the student leaves the educational system. In this context the establishment of Exit Outcomes becomes rational and needed from a systems point of view. Such establishment should provide the frame work from which the practioner can plan and work toward reaching an end goal which has been defined in a greater context.

Outcomes can become a template/overylay to the entire special education system guiding the individual interventions employed toward a common goal, successful integration into the society at large after formal school ends. It is hypothesized that such a template would allow for thorough and appropriate evaluation of services to those students with emotional &/or behavior disabilities which, in the end, should result in better overall services for this group.

ORGANIZATION OF STATE OUTCOMES

All outcomes are organized in the same way, except Outcome 1.1, which deals with the completion of local general graduation requirements. Each outcome is stated briefly, followed by a CLARIFICATION statement. This is then followed by a list of PERFORMANCE EXPECTATIONS and then four grade level lists of SELECTED EDUCATIONAL CONSIDERATIONS.

OUTCOME STATEMENT

This is a general statement that is intended to be both functional and easily understood. It is meant to be an important aspect of competence in learning and daily life. Educators and parents should be able to recognize its general focus. (Example: 3.2 Ability to participate appropriately in group activities.)

CLARIFICATION

This statement helps to further explain the outcome and provide a rationale for the outcome. It also describes the scope of the outcome's coverage.

PERFORMANCE EXPECTATIONS

These are a list of behaviors that the student must perform to achieve the outcome. They are the basis of assessment on how well the student performs on each outcome and lead to strategies used for evaluation of the student's performance. (Example: 3.2 Interacts with group members in a constructive manner)

SELECTED EDUCATIONAL CONSIDERATIONS

This series of statements is written for the following levels: entering 4th grade, entering 6th grade, entering 9th grade, and exiting 12th grade. They represent a list of knowledge, skills, experiences, or attitudes that educators feel are relevant to a student's probability of achieving a given outcome. These statements do not guarantee that a student will achieve an outcome, and to achieve an outcome the student does not have to acquire all of the knowledge, skills, or attitudes listed. These are mainly points that are relevant to increasing the student's opportunity to achieve the outcome and suggest possible areas of teacher intervention and/or instruction. (Example: 3.2 Entering 4th Grade; The student understands the rules and responsibilities of various age-appropriate activities.)

The relationship between each outcome and its detailed information is well defined. The outcome is a general focus or end point of the student's education. It reflects one or more educational need of students with emotional impairments. The Performance Expectations then represent those behaviors that reflect achievement of the outcome and are the basis for evaluation. The Selected Educational Considerations are suggestions of the type of information a student might acquire to help achieve the outcome.

The next page provides an overview of all 16 outcomes currently being considered for adoption by the State of Michigan.

EVALUATION OF OUTCOMES

An outcome is actually an end product or goal and is a general statement. Therefore, the evaluation of the outcome is done on its parts, the Performance Expectations. The means of evaluating these expectations can vary with each individual teacher and/or program. Suggested means of evaluation should include a wide and varied set of different techniques. These techniques can include, but are not limited to the following: 1) Teacher observations, 2) Daily work grades, 3) Test grades, 4) Interviews with the student, 5) End products of a project, and 6) Responses to simulations and/or decision making situations.

With such a variety of evaluation possibilities, it is necessary to organize the results. This can be done by creating a student portfolio which includes selected materials from the list of evaluation techniques. Not only does this help organize the evaluation, but it provides a means for following through with the work on an outcome as the student progresses from grade to grade. The portfolio contents can then help determine the students mastery of the final goal or outcome.

OVERVIEW OF EXPECTED
OUTCOMES: EMOTIONAL IMPAIRMENT

Category 1: Basic Academics

1.1 Completion of local school minimum graduation requirements

Category 2: Emotional Development

2.1 Ability to effectively advocate for self.
2.2 Ability to evaluate emotions and personal conduct.

Category 3: Prosocial Skills and Adaptive Behavior Social Skills.

3.1 Understanding the elements inherent in typical emotional and social relationships.
3.2 Ability to participate appropriately in group activities.
3.3 Ability to convey thoughts and feelings in socially acceptable ways.

Category 4: Task Completion

4.1 Ability to implement routines, apply strategies, and follow through to task completion.
4.2 Ability to access resources to complete tasks effectively.

Category 5: Life-style Precautions

5.1 Comprehensive knowledge of behaviors that are potentially harmful and strategies for prevention and response.
5.2 Understanding of civil and criminal laws.
5.3 Understanding of consequences of sexual activity and the strategies for dealing with those consequences.
5.4 Ability to construct leisure routines.

Category 6: Prevocational, Vocational, and Career Education

6.1 Knowledge of realistic vocational options.
6.2 Ability use effective job procurement strategies.

Category 7: Parenting and Adult Living Education

7.1. Ability to assume responsibilities associated with the operation of a living environment.
7.2 Ability to care for self and others.

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Spady, William and Marshall, Kit. 1991, Beyond Traditional Outcome-Based Education. Alexendria, VA. Educational Leadership, Oct. '91 pp67-72.

** The researchers noted on page 2 were Dr. Paula Wood of Wayne State University, Detroit, MI, and Dr. Brenda Lazarus of Grand Valley State University, Allendale, MI.. Dr's Wood and Lazarus wrote the original overview of the unique needs of Emotionally Impaired students used by the Center for Quality Special Education.

Diane Worrell
Missouri LINC

Transition Goals and Objectives: Missouri's View of the Future

Missouri LINC is a technical assistance resource center funded by the Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education which provides professional development activities to educators of students with disabilities. These professional development activities consist of providing technical assistance to requesting school districts, conducting conference and inservice presentations, developing free and low-cost materials and answering hotline questions. The topics for these activities include inclusion, vocational assessment, functional curriculum, interagency cooperation and other topics related to special education. Over the past few years, Missouri LINC has focused on providing information to educators about transition and its implementation into school district programs.

In 1992, following several years of providing professional development activities on transition to Missouri educators, Missouri LINC conducted a statewide survey to determine what current transition activities were taking place and to identify additional needs which districts may still exhibit.

Survey Method

A list of all Missouri school districts was obtained and every 10th district was randomly selected to receive a survey. If an elementary school was selected, the next school on the list which was a secondary school was selected. Approximately 25% of Missouri schools, one hundred and eleven districts, were sent surveys based on this approach. The survey, developed by Missouri LINC staff, contained several sections.

The first section contained demographic information, general IEP content information and extent of district support for transition. In the second section, districts were asked a series of statements about transition activities and were instructed to check the level (elementary, junior high/middle school, high school) at which the activity was performed and the type of student for whom the activity was designed (resource, self-contained, or other). This second part contained several subsections regarding overall district organization for transition, curriculum and IEP development, parent involvement and community involvement. Another section dealt with professional development and asked districts about their level of involvement with in-service training for their staff. An addition section for narrative comments was also given.

Of the 92 returned surveys, 90 surveys were usable. A majority of the surveys were rural. Not included in the survey were the 30 districts which participated in the transition discretionary grants during the late 1980's (Missouri LINC, 1992). Instead, the discretionary grant districts helped with piloting the survey and providing comments which helped to revise the survey prior to dissemination.

Survey Results

Results of the survey indicate several major points:

- The majority of school districts (59%) reported that they were in the implementation stage of their transition program development.
- Although a majority of districts reported implementing transition programs, the data did not report strong inclusion of transition goals and objectives in IEPs. The transition areas most strongly addressed in IEPs were career planning, employment options, socialization/friends, and personal management. Areas rarely addressed included financial assistance/income support, community participation, advocacy/legal services, living arrangements, medical needs, and insurance needs.
- Overall, 79% of the districts reported they provide a functional curriculum for their students, yet these functional transition goals were not documented in the IEP.
- The majority of transition goals and objectives inservice training (72%) was received by senior high special educators, while junior high/middle school received 40% and elementary received 24%.
- Fifty-five (55%) of the districts reported having attended a LINC conference on transition during the 1990-91 school year while 43% reported never having attended a conference related to transition.

Recommendations for the Future

Following the survey, a number of recommendations to improve transition activities in Missouri were suggested. One of the most important recommendations is that additional statewide training should be provided. The areas of program evaluation/program improvement, follow-up studies development and use, and the incorporation of transition goals and objectives into individualized education programs (IEPs) are inservice topics addressed in this statewide training. Other recommendations include transition awareness training for district administrators and general educators to gather support, role and responsibility clarification, and the utilization of functional curriculums. Additionally, district personnel should be encouraged to visit other programs.

Summary

The results and recommendations of the survey seem to enforce the activities of Missouri LINC in providing inservice training throughout Missouri. Missouri LINC has taken the recommendations a step further by providing district inservice instead of statewide training with transition goals and objectives as the most requested topic. Generally, an overview of transition and transition planning is presented before getting into transition goals and objectives.

In addition, during the 1992-93 school year, Missouri LINC will be working with three rural school districts in an effort to determine what it takes for a district to successfully implement transition services. Missouri LINC will be assisting these three districts with a variety of transition activities including inservice training, needs assessment, curriculum alignment and/or curriculum development, transition planning during the IEP and many more endeavors.

Missouri LINC has also developed the *Transition Implementation Manual* which will help school districts develop effective transition programs. This manual covers the areas of student and program needs assessment, curriculum, sample transition objectives, program evaluation and agency resources.

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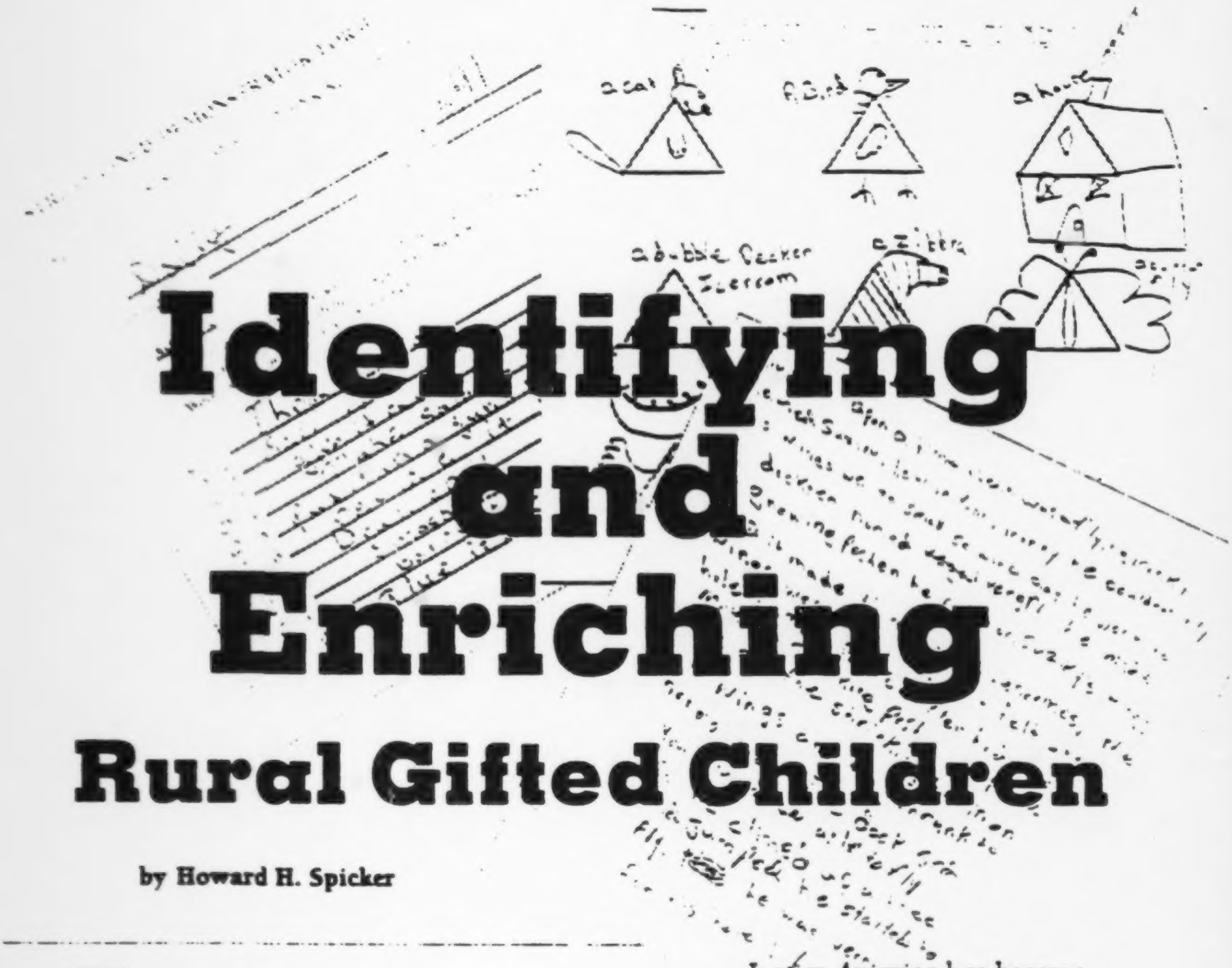
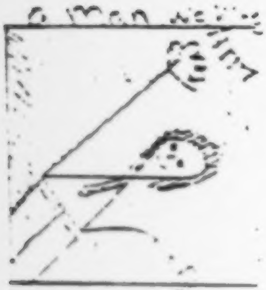


Identifying and Enriching

Rural Gifted Children

by Howard H. Spicker



Just as America has become primarily urban in orientation, aptitude and intelligence tests often reveal a bias toward the acculturation experiences of urban children. By learning to identify strokes of genius among their rural charges – and modifying the curriculum to accomodate their needs – rural teachers nurture tomorrow's creative thinkers and problem solvers.

Guest Editor HOWARD H. SPICKER is professor of education and director of Gifted and Talented Programs at Indiana University. Project SPRING which he describes is funded by the Jacob K. Javits Gifted and Talented Students Education Act, U.S. Department of Education.

In the past decade major economic and social forces have profoundly affected rural communities. As indicated in Joyce D. Stern's article, "How Demographic Trends for the Eighties Affect Rural and Small-Town Schools," found on page 71 in this issue, traditional rural occupations of farming, fishing, logging, ore-extraction, and small manufacturing that once supported the majority of rural residents provide only a third of rural employment today.[1] Such service-producing industries as tourism, insurance, and real estate now account for nearly two-thirds of rural employment. As a result, family incomes in rural counties are less than 75 percent of that of metropolitan counties. The jobless rate in nonmetropolitan counties is now 40 percent higher than in metropolitan counties—a rise of almost 35 percent since 1980.

Declining income, lack of job opportunities, poor health care, and underfunded schools in much of rural America have spurred a significant rural exodus, particularly of many young families who have had their roots in the community for generations. If rural communities are to survive these major social and economic problems, solutions must be found.

One such solution is the investment of scarce resources in school improvement. Realizing that the computer, robotics, and other high-paying technological jobs require longer schooling and more sophisticated educational offerings than provided in the past, many rural educators are redesigning their educational programs. Some of the redesign elements include:

- Customized instruction to meet individual needs
- Interdisciplinary and cross-curriculum instruction
- Using the community as a classroom
- Holding students responsible for their own learning
- More flexible school days
- Using technology to provide access to advanced curriculum and resources from around the globe[2]

Among the beneficiaries of these school reforms are rural gifted children. Increasing numbers of school boards are justifying special programs for their brightest children as investments in the community's future problem solvers. The acceptance of such programs for gifted students is greatly enhanced when the community is assured the programs will include long- and short-term residents and will serve children from all ethnic and racial backgrounds as well as children from poor and affluent families.

Defining *Gifted*

Who are these gifted children? The federal government defines gifted and talented as "children and youth who give evidence of high performance capability in areas such as intellectual, creative, artistic, or leadership capacity, or in specific academic fields, and who require services or activities not ordinarily provided by the school in order to fully develop such capabilities."[3]

"High performance capability" refers to children who have high abilities but do not show it on traditional performance measures. "Specific academic ability" includes students who may have exceptional abilities in one subject or field but not in others. The addition of creative, artistic, and leadership capacities expands the definition of giftedness beyond the intellectual performances measured by traditional intelligence tests. This expansion of giftedness into other domains is carried still further by Howard Gardner's theory of multiple intelligences[4] and Robert Sternberg's mental strategies for problem solving.[5]

Despite these additions to the definition of giftedness, school districts continue to use traditional intelligence tests, high achievement test scores, and positive teacher recommendations to identify gifted children. Identification procedures based on these limited criteria greatly favor the acculturative experiences of urban and suburban, white, middle-class children

Table 1
Characteristics of Gifted Students

Advantaged Gifted Children (Urban, middle class children who accept values of the dominant culture)	**Disadvantaged Rural Gifted Children**
	NEGATIVE
Speak standard English	Speak a non-standard regional dialect
Are verbal and have good oral communication skills	Are less verbal in oral communication skills
Are active participants in classroom activities	Tend to be passive participants in classroom activities
Perform tasks within time limitations	Are relatively unaffected by time pressures. Work slowly but meticulously
Complete classroom assignments and homework	Are likely to be lax in completing assignments and homework
Perform well on standardized test	Are not likely to perform well on standardized tests
	POSITIVE
Perform well in all subjects	May show exceptional ability in one subject and average to below average in others
Produce written work in proper grammatical form with good spelling and legible handwriting	Have written products that may be of high quality in content but of poor quality in grammatical form, spelling, and handwriting
Demonstrate their strengths within the academic classroom	More likely to demonstrate their strengths outside the classroom, e.g. auto and tractor repair, knowledge specific to their rural environment, creativity related to 4-H projects, talent in music and the performing arts
Usually perform equally well on verbal and nonverbal tests	Are likely to perform better on non-verbal than verbal tests

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whose values are those of America's dominant Euro-American culture. The characteristics of gifted children with those acculturation experiences are listed in Table 1 under "Advantaged Gifted Children."

Among the gifted children overlooked by selection based primarily on IQ and achievement test cut-offs are economically disadvantaged children from traditional rural backgrounds. Such children often have had limited urban travel experiences; have been exposed to few educational toys, books, magazines, and school-related materials in the home; and are likely to come from families whose adult members have a minimal formal education.

Disadvantaged rural gifted children tend to exhibit characteristics differing substantially from those of advantaged gifted children (Table 1). The probability of schools selecting children who exhibit these negative traits for their gifted programs is extremely small. It is no surprise that economically disadvantaged children are significantly underrepresented in most rural gifted programs.

Challenging the premise that there are few gifted children among the rural poor, Indiana University's Special Populations Resource Information Network for the Gifted (Project Spring), funded by the U.S. Department of Education, has developed alternative identification procedures for finding those hildren. This innovative program produces curriculum modifications appropriate to children's educational needs, and is experimenting with telecommunication approaches that enable students and teachers to electronically access information and communicate with each other.

Identifying Disadvantaged, Rural Gifted Children

Ten elementary schools located in three rural consolidated school districts in southern Indiana serve as experimental sites for Project SPRING. Over a two-year period, 105 fourth- and fifth-grade Appalachian-descended white, disadvantaged gifted children have been identified by special identification strategies developed for the project. These strategies follow.

Teacher Awareness Workshops

Teachers without formal training in gifted education are likely to expect all gifted children to exhibit the characteristics listed for advantaged gifted children (Table 1). These stereotypical expectations must be modified if general classroom teachers are to identify disadvantaged gifted children. Inservice workshops demonstrate that some children who do not display the behaviors often typical of advantaged gifted children might display different kinds of behaviors that mark them as gifted (Table 1). Merely exposing teachers to this list of characteristics is unlikely to convince them to change their attitudes. Work samples produced by children illustrate each of the characteristics. For example, to demonstrate that students can produce high-quality creative writing even though there may be poor handwriting, spelling, and grammatical form, teachers receive a story, shown above in Figure 1, written by "Dolly," an economically deprived rural fourth-grader. The story was written in response to an in-class assignment to write a story entitled "The Flying Monkey."

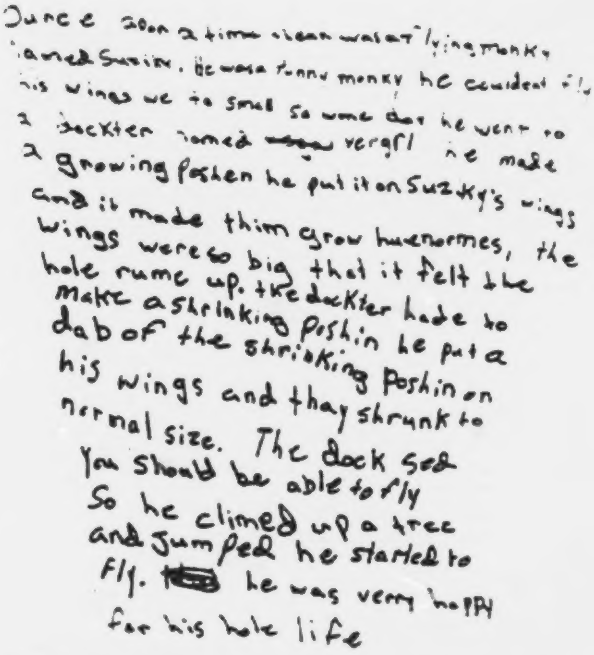

Ounce apon a time thean was a flying monky
named Suziky. He was a funny monky he couldent fly
his wings we to small so wone day he went to
a dockter named vergil he made
a growing poshen he put it on Suzky's wings
and it made thim grow huenormes, the
wings were so big that it felt the
hole rume up. the dockter hade to
make a shrlnking poshin he put a
dab of the shrinking poshin on
his wings and thay shrunk to
normal size. The dock sed
You should be able to fly
So he climed up a tree
and jumped he started to
fly. he was very happy
for his hole life

Figure 1 Rural child's work sample used for demonstration purposes in inservice workshops

Dolly's corrected writing sample reads like this:

Once upon a time there was a flying monkey named Suziky. He was a funny monkey. He couldn't fly. His wings were too small. So one day he went to a doctor named Vergil. He made a growing potion. He put it on Suziky's wings and it made him grow huenormes [hue-normous]. The wings were so big that it [they] filled the whole room up. The doctor had to make a shrinking potion. He put a dab of the shrinking potion on his wings and they shrunk to normal size. The doc said, "You should be able to fly." So he climbed up a tree and jumped. He started to fly. He was very happy for his whole life.

If Dolly's story had been evaluated on the basis of spelling, punctuation, grammatical form, and handwriting, she would have received a failing grade. Fortunately for Dolly, her story was judged on the merits of its content. Note the novel names she gives her characters, her creativity in inventing the word "hue-normous" to properly describe Suziky's abnormally large wings, and her sequencing skills in ordering the events in the story—all in all a remarkable piece of writing for a nine-year-old.

Dolly's responses to the Torrance Test of Creative Thinking shown in Figure 2 illustrate several other characteristics typical of bright, disadvantaged rural children.

Note the difference between her performance on the verbal component (Activity 1) and the nonverbal components (Activities 2 and 3). The difference between the together. Eli was four when his dad brought home a wheel barrel and my husband had the instructions out was having trouble trying to figure them out. He left the room. When he returned, Eli had assembled it and my husband tightened the bolts down." His mother went on, "When he was four, he decided he wanted a chair for his room. He went out to the woodshed and found some wood, a hammer, and nails—and made a chair. It had a back, arms, and legs. It was sturdy and lasted a year and a half."

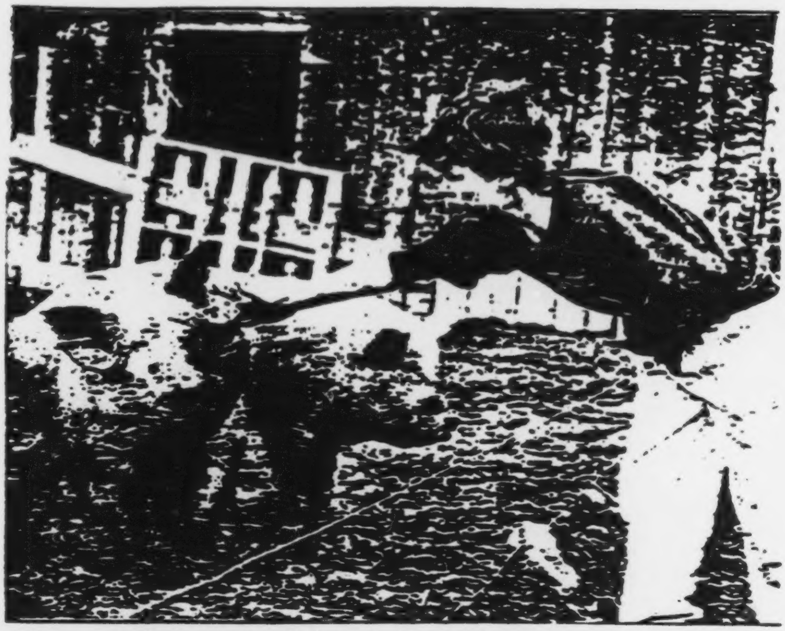
Parent information provides rich information about a child's out-of-school accomplishments. Such information should receive serious consideration in the gifted and talented selection process.

Student Products and Contests

One of the most useful methods of identifying the abilities of economically disadvantaged students is to assess their performance by collecting and evaluating things they make. Contests open to all children are an ideal way to collect such samples. Following the study of pioneer life, 120 fourth-grade children participated in a "Pioneer Contest," which was set in a local state forest. Children chose one of seven contests and were given one hour to complete their choice. Each contest stressed one of Gardner's seven intelligences. Some of the more popular contest choices were:

- Using materials from nature, build a dwelling for the evening. Explain how it will protect you from the things you might run into. (SPATIAL AND KINESTHETIC)
- Draw a picture of a new plant or animal you have seen in the woods. Tell everything you know about it. (VISUAL/SPATIAL)
- Make a musical instrument from natural materials and make up a song about it based on your experiences in the woods. (MUSICAL)

Many types of materials were provided, including leaves, pipe cleaners, twigs, rocks, acorns, wire, twine, drawing paper, and glue. Children were allowed to select unlimited quantities of materials to complete their projects. As each student completed his or her project, a videotaped interview followed. Students described their project, why they chose it, how they felt about it, and how they would have changed it if they had more time.



Ronnie, a newly-discovered rural gifted and talented student, pets one of the pigs he feeds as part of his daily chores. Copyright © 1992. *The Courier-Journal.* Reprinted with permission.

Two independent judges evaluated the products and student interviews on the basis of each student's creativity, critical thinking, logic, and reasoning ability. Performance on the Pioneer Contest was a major influencing factor in the selection of sixteen of the twenty-five children the school district selected for Project SPRING the first year.

Program Modifications

If gifted programs for children who are identified by nonschool-related performances and other nontraditional identification procedures are to be effective, they must provide nontraditional program options, learning experiences, and teaching strategies suited to their needs. Program adaptations made for Project SPRING students included the development of enrichment activities fourth-grade teachers could use independently to stimulate higher-level thinking skills. The three project sites developed interdisciplinary units at the fifth-grade level.

Enrichment Activities

All regular fourth-grade teachers in the three participating school districts received training on program adaptations and teaching strategies needed to stimulate higher-level thinking skills. The most popular approach to curriculum modification involved assisting teachers to adapt a unit they were already using. One such adaptation focused on the study of Indiana government, a requirement of all fourth-graders in Indiana. Children were given opportunities to develop political parties, design a platform, nominate candidates for office, run a campaign, conduct polls, engage in debates, and hold an election. Local and state politicians and their staffs served in many different resource capacities.

Video Documentaries

All fourth-grade Project Spring children produced a video documentary about themselves and their families. They received instructions for writing scripts, producing a storyboard, operating a camcorder, and conducting an interview. Each student took a camcorder home for two days in order to produce his or her documentary.

The student-produced documentary has been an important source of information regarding the child's family life, his or her out-of-school interests, and the extent to which the family understands and supports his or her educational efforts. The

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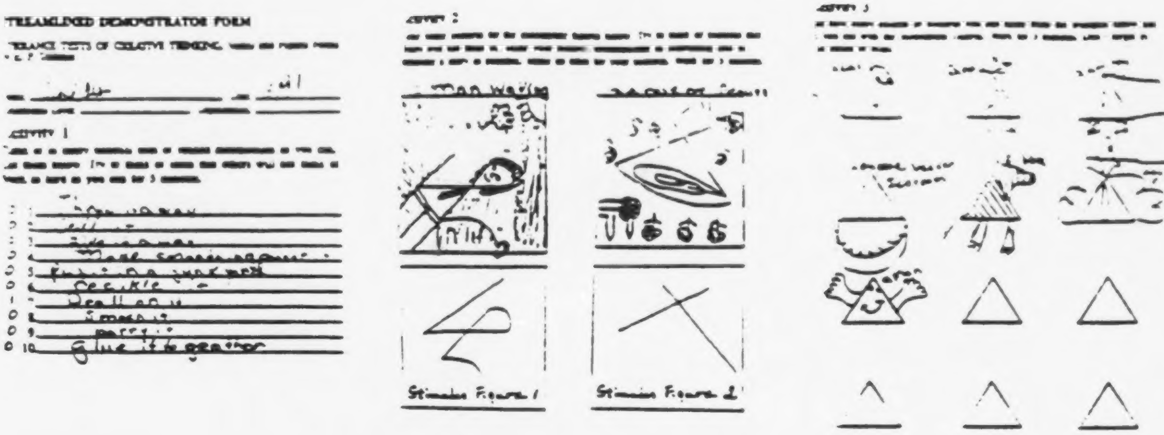

Figure 2. Dolly's responses to the Torrance Test of Creative Thinking.

two components is quite dramatic. Dolly produces only one appropriate verbal response. Yet her nonverbal responses are truly outstanding. Particularly impressive is her originality and the elaboration of each of her drawings. Dolly's low verbal and high nonverbal test scores are similar to those obtained by the majority of disadvantaged rural children selected for Project SPRING.

Since Dolly completed only seven of the twelve triangles (Activity 3) in the time allowed, she lost five easy points on fluency. However, the elaborate details and exceptional originality of her drawings resulted in a total creativity score that was significantly higher than that obtained by many of the advantaged gifted children who completed all the designs. Working slowly and doing well on a few items rather than working fast and doing poorly on a lot of items is another characteristic common to many Project SPRING children.

Escalators Versus Firewood and Pigs

Following one such workshop, a fourth-grade teacher nominated Ronnie, one of his students, for Project SPRING. He reported, "Ronnie knows more about wood than most people and knows what firewood puts out the most heat. When we have a class discussion, Ronnie shows more insight and depth of understanding than anyone else in class."

Ronnie comes from an impoverished rural background. Hunting, fishing, and the folklore of the woods are the major enrichment experiences available to him. His daily chores include feeding the pigs that are being raised to help feed the family. Ronnie's fourth-grade California Achievement Test language arts scores (reported in percentiles) were as follows:

Vocabulary 31	Language Mechanics 18
Comprehension 78	Expression 69
Reading Total 55	Total Language 45

Note the wide discrepancies between Ronnie's high reading comprehension and low vocabulary scores and his high language expression and low language mechanics scores. Discrepancies such as these are typical of children from rural cultural backgrounds.

In addition to his highly variable achievement test scores, Ronnie obtained an IQ of 77 on the Otis-Lennon School Ability Test. On the average, the verbal intelligence test scores of disadvantaged rural children are about ten IQ points below those of advantaged urban or suburban students. Terman and Merrill hypothesized that "the lowered IQ of rural children may be ascribed to the relatively poorer educational facilities in rural communities." An equally plausible explanation might be that items on verbal tests favor the acculturation experiences of urban children. Ronnie, never having seen an escalator, would be hard-pressed to describe one. Yet, he knows more about wood, raising pigs, and hunting and fishing than most children his age. Unfortunately, questions involving escalators are more likely to appear on aptitude tests than questions about firewood and raising pigs. Ronnie's lack of urban experiences, coupled with his high reading comprehension and language expression scores, are strong indicators that his low performance on the Otis-Lennon was an invalid measure of his intelligence.

Ronnie was accepted for Project SPRING on the basis of his teacher's recommendation. With four months remaining in the school year, Ronnie was given specially designed enrichment activities in his regular fourth grade. In addition, twice a week he worked with other gifted children in a program outside his classroom, where he read and discussed more challenging books, conducted science projects, completed independent research, and learned to think critically. When the school year ended, his fourth-grade teacher wrote, "He continues to blossom . . . positively turned on to school work. He thinks, he writes, he discusses, and he's on the honor roll now." His academic performance in fifth grade continues to be exceptional. He is still on the honor roll.

Parent-Student Survey

Parents are asked to answer questions that apply to their child. The survey includes questions about the child's ability or interest in fixing things, making things, collecting things, writing things, and reading things.

In response to fixing things, a parent described her fourth-grade son: "He is very good at figuring out how things are put

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documentary becomes one part of a visual record of the child's educational accomplishments over an extended period of time. Such visual portfolios also provide supportive evidence for continuing funding of educational programs designed to stimulate bright disadvantaged rural children to reach their maximum potential.

Common Interdisciplinary Instructional Units

Because of limited fiscal and human resources available for specialized studies, it is often more difficult to conduct an in-depth study of a complex problem in rural than in urban or suburban schools. One approach to overcoming these limitations is for several rural districts to agree to plan and implement an instructional unit on a common topic and then share instructional personnel, lesson plans, and community resources to implement the unit.

The three school districts associated with Project SPRING planned and implemented a unit involving an in-depth study of water. Students at each of fourteen sites "adopted" a nearby river, stream, or lake and studied "their" body of water from the perspective of one of ten fields of specialization. Specialty fields included entomology, geology, ichthyology, conservation, zoology, botany, history, ground and surface water chemistry, microbiology, and agronomy. Each group of student "specialists" took numerous field trips to their adopted body of water for data collection. Professional specialists from private and public sectors (e.g., State Department of Natural Resources, State Geological Survey, County Soil Conservation Service, County Board of Health) acquainted each group of student specialists with the tools and techniques used to conduct investigations in their respective fields. Books, films, videos, computer programs, and numerous other information sources also were made available to the students.

Teaching via interdisciplinary instructional units is an effective way of getting children with diverse abilities and interests to focus their energies on a common problem. Units that cut across a variety of disciplines are more likely to require children to critically analyze information to solve complex problems than to merely memorize and regurgitate isolated pieces of information.

University Experiences

In families where high school graduation is a major event, a child may not be expected to attend college. To change that expectation, Project SPRING children are offered numerous opportunities to visit a college campus. Such visits include attending children's concerts at Indiana University's renowned Musical Arts Center and touring such university facilities as the cyclotron, planetarium, science laboratories, dormitories, student union, and various sports facilities.

A major university experience awarded to approximately one-third of the Project SPRING students is two-weeks of attendance at Indiana University's College for Gifted and Talented Youth. This residential program for approximately 200 third- through twelfth-grade gifted students from around the country provides opportunities for students to attend courses taught by university professors. The students then use the knowledge they gain to solve simulated problems that involve time travel, space and sea exploration, criminal investigations, television investigative reporting, and much more.

According to their teachers and parents, Project SPRING students who attended the "college" last summer have become more self-assured, are better able to defend their positions on discussion topics, and have become more confident in their academic abilities.

Telecommunication Innovations.

Employing telecommunication methods of information exchange, Project SPRING uses a computer bulletin board to provide opportunities for gifted students and their teachers to interact with one another. Students and teachers also use computers to search data bases and access information resources not available in their communities. Students themselves become an information resource to other students by exchanging information they have collected from their respective research projects.[7]

Operating a telecommunication system is relatively inexpensive, once basic computer equipment has been purchased. Since computers use telephone lines to access and send information, they require a modem to transmit the information from one computer via a telephone line to another computer. Since many rural schools have only one telephone line per school, a separate telephone line dedicated for computer usage must be installed. To finance the telephone charges associated with long-distance computer information exchange and data retrieval, departments of education in states such as Florida and Indiana have set up toll-free numbers to permit students and teachers to access their computer information resource networks.

Creative Contributions to Society

Obviously, the contributions that Project SPRING'S 105 disadvantaged rural gifted children will make to society as adults will not be known until the next century. Meanwhile, Ronnie's dream of becoming a basketball star has evolved into thoughts of becoming a brain or heart surgeon. Dolly continues to write creative stories and has become an enthusiastic botanist—her choice of specialization for the water-exploration study. Eli continues to build things; his latest project involved designing and building a go-cart he steered with his feet. For his contribution to the unit on water exploration, Eli helped set up an elaborate classroom aquarium with minnows and crayfish he caught in his adopted river. He then obtained information from a nearby fish hatchery about food sources and feeding schedules, and shared that information using the telecommunication process with project participants at other locations.

It is unlikely that children such as those chosen for Project SPRING will ever make impressive scores on standardized intelligence and achievement tests. However, if identified properly and provided appropriate educational programs, these children will make major contributions to society and to their own rural communities in the years to come.

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[1] Joyce D. Stern, "How Demographic Trends for the Eighties Affect Rural and Small Town Schools," *Educational Horizons* 70 (Winter 1992): 71-77.

[2] Mid-Continent Regional Educational Laboratory Rural Institute, *The Rural [illegible]* (Aurora, CO: McREL, April 1990), 1.

[3] *Annals of Congress*, Title IV, H.R. 5, 1988, 227-228.

[4] Howard Gardner, *Frames of Mind: The Theory of Multiple Intelligences* (New York: Basic Books, 1983).

[5] Robert Sternberg, *Children's Thinking* (Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1986).

[6] Lewis Terman and M. A. Merrill, *Measuring Intelligence* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1937), 40.

[7] William Thomas Southern and Howard H. Spicker, "The Rural Gifted On-line: Bulletin Boards and Electronic Curriculum," *Roeper Review* 11 (1989): 199-202.

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RURAL SCHOOLS: RESOURCES FOR REFORM

The history of educational policy in the United States is one which has had a particularly strong impact on small schools and rural areas. In the last fifty years the number of school districts declined 87 percent and the total number of schools declined 69 percent with average school enrollment rising from 127 to 653. (Walberg, 1992) The elimination of schools and school districts may be this nation's most widely implemented education policy. The consolidation[1] of schools and districts has been performed in the name of such "reforms" as age-graded classrooms, departmentalized curriculum, specialization, and standardized service delivery. These reforms generally contain some more or less vague reference to "efficiency". Small schools in rural areas often cannot meet these "standards". The result is either a stated or *de facto* policy of school consolidation in most states.

Even where relatively small schools still exist, increasing standardization and regulations pressure small schools in rural areas to function like large schools in urban areas. For example, a two-track high school diploma system (an Honors Diploma and a Standard Diploma) forces schools to divide small classes into separate groups, often fracturing the learning community. And, ever-narrower teacher certifications restrict teachers from teaching interdisciplinary or multi-grade classes. For example, an "early childhood" teacher may not be able to teach a class which includes fourth graders, or an English teacher may not be able to offer a journalism class.

In addition to standardizing the *structure* of schools, many education policies also standardize *curriculum* as well. Strict content and methodology guidelines are developed for a generalized audience, that is, all the schools in a state. Therefore, they tend to decontextualize content for all students. And, because standardized curricular materials and textbooks are developed for the larger urban market, schools rarely provide rural students opportunity to study their own communities or value their own cultures. Students will have more opportunity to learn about the supreme court than the probate court, to undertake a "cookbook" science experiment in the lab than to develop a scientific methodology for studying the quality of water in their own well and community.

The results of this standardized approach to schooling are particularly harmful for small rural communities. When schools are closed, communities lose an essential social and economic institution and a downward economic spiral is precipitated. Rural children and adolescents are forced to ride a bus often as long as four or five hours each day.[2] Even when small schools remain they have tended to educate young people to leave their home communities for employment in larger areas. A standardized urban structure and curriculum also depletes local educational and economic resources simply by underutilizing them or by using them in the service of an economic and educational agenda set elsewhere. The small rural school's potential as a resource for addressing community needs is compromised.

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[1] School consolidation is defined as combining two or more existing schools so that at least one school is closed entirely or loses grades (for example, grades nine through twelve are moved to another location). School consolidation is distinct from school integration which involves combining different populations of students but does not necessarily involve closing a school.

[2] The most heavily consolidated regions of the country appear to be Black Belt and Delta areas of the Deep South, the southern and central Appalachians, and portions of the Hispanic Southwest. These areas contain the nation's heaviest concentrations of rural poverty. Because of the existence of only one or two schools (particularly high schools) per county in these areas, students are often forced to ride a bus four or five hours each day.

Nevertheless, much of the recent reform research suggests that students can learn best in environments which are small, personal, and non-tracked and through curricula which is hands-on, inter-disciplinary, and student-driven. Small schools naturally possess many of the characteristics which make implementing these reform strategies practical and effective.

CHARACTERISTICS OF SMALL SCHOOLS. The characteristics described below are common to small schools. They have often been contravened in efforts to emulate large schools or conform to regulation, but by developing them and linking them with imaginative curricular approaches small schools can improve the education of rural young people and the well-being of rural communities.

Participation and Inclusivity. The greater level of student participation in small schools is well-documented. (Barker and Gump, 1964; Horne, 1986). In a small school a larger percentage of students is needed to make an activity successful; for example, a junior class play will require most students in a 30-member class, but only a small percentage of a 300-member class. The result is that a wider variety of students are drawn into activities in small schools. More students have the opportunity to develop a range of skills and confidences. Small schools cannot afford to be exclusive or to rely on only those students most privileged or previously disposed. The expectation of students that they will take part in school affairs extends to academic activities as well, with a larger percentage of students in small schools taking advanced courses and participating in academic activities (Pollard and O'Hare, 1990).

Familial Nature/Personal Contact. The size of small schools enables students and teachers to get to know each other well over time. Students know classmates not only in their own rooms or grades but throughout the school. Teachers know students from one year to the next and often in several subject areas. The result tends to be an emotional bonding that students and teachers describe as "like a family" (Lambert, 1986). Teachers get to know the academic needs and strengths of individual students as well as their emotional and personal circumstances. Students come to see their teachers as personal friends and develop a sense of belonging and importance to the school community (Gregory and Smith, 1987, p. 26). Neither teachers nor students can "get lost in the crowd" or shirk their responsibilities without other people knowing. One by-product of small schools is a reduction in the level of drug and alcohol abuse among students and fewer behavior and delinquency problems (Gregory and Smith, 1987, p.131).

Manageability. The close personal nature of small schools reduces the disciplinary problems they face. In turn, it is easier to manage student-directed studies and project-driven academic work. Small schools have greater bureaucratic manageability as well. The smaller number of teachers makes shared decision-making and consensus building easier which, in turn, makes faculty-wide planning and school re-structuring more productive and congenial. Teachers will also have an easier time creating interdisciplinary and multi-grade curricular approaches if they don't first have to work through highly structured subject-area "departments" and their chairs or through strictly segmented and graded classrooms.

Accessibility. Small schools, especially those located close to the homes of their students, are much more accessible to parents and community residents and have greater levels of parent involvement and community support (Lambert, 1987). Parents are much more likely to find time and energy to participate in school activities if the school is only two or three miles from home as opposed to twenty or thirty miles away. In addition, parents can get to know the faculty well if they only have to negotiate their relationship with one school in their child's academic career rather than several different schools or different schools for different children. This accessibility translates into a greater sense of ownership and pride among both parents and other community residents. They come to see, like students, that their actions and attitudes make a difference.

Value to Local Community. Schools in small rural communities occupy a unique social and economic position. They are generally the largest local employer. They generally consume the largest share of local tax revenues. They are usually the only common social and public ground--unlike churches and social or civic groups which tend to involve only one segment of the population. Rural residents have long known that their schools were the heart of their communities. Most communities fight to retain and improve their school if it is threatened. There is growing evidence that schools help stem outmigration, boost property values and tax revenues, promote community cohesion, and serve as an important component of infrastructure which attracts and delivers resources and services. These characteristics serve not only the local community but also make the existence of numerous small schools throughout the county an asset to the entire area.

Academic Success. The growing research on the effect of school size on students' academic achievement is consistently finding that students achieve at higher rates in small schools than in large schools and that they are more likely to stay in school through graduation. This is particularly true for students who are "at-risk" because of poverty, cultural or racial ethnicity, or family history (Howley, 1988). It should be noted, that these results occur in small schools which are for the most part structured much like large schools. It could be expected that the gap might be even wider were small schools freer to implement reform efforts based on their own natural characteristics.

Efficiency. For more than fifty years a mentality of "bigger is cheaper" has pervaded much American educational policy. Even when arguments advocating increased academic effectiveness in larger schools have broken down, an economic efficiency model has generally prevailed. This model is based on an assumption of "economies of scale" borrowed from business theory. However, it has failed to account for diseconomies of scale and hidden costs associated with large school size. The overall research results are mixed with a number of recent studies finding small schools as efficient to operate as large schools or more so (White and Tweeten, 1973; Holland, Baritelle, and White, 1976; Coleman and LaRocque, 1984; Butler and Monk, 1985). This seems to be true at a micro level in terms of the actual expense to the school system in the form of construction, building maintenance, transportation, salaries for teachers and support personnel, and student enrollment. It appears to be even truer at a macro level--that is, the overall cost to the society--in terms of reducing social costs which stem from underachievement, drug/alcohol abuse, delinquency and vandalism, drop-outs, and general disaffectation among youths and their parents.

The crucial factor in the occurrence of these salutary characteristics is size. A small number of students and teachers will, by itself, produce attributes in a school which can be developed for school improvement and reform. Private school supporters have long touted small size as an essential component of what they can offer students. The research is showing that public schools can offer many benefits to their students by putting them in small personal environments.

EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES OF SMALL RURAL COMMUNITIES. Rural communities tend to have less cash wealth and higher rates of poverty than their urban and suburban counterparts. As the farm crisis continues to reduce land values and property taxes and as more and more rural families face economic hardships, the financial strains on rural schools will increase. Yet many of the costs of schooling in rural areas are the costs of delivering the same services in the same way as a large school. (i.e., specialists teachers delivering a poorly unified but highly varied curriculum using a prescribed set of lab equipment and other "hardware".) These costs divided among the low number of students in a rural area can be prohibitive. This inappropriate model of rural education depletes local financial resources at the same time it ignores the wealth of local educational and cultural resources which are present in even the poorest communities.

Identifying local resources can be a dynamic academic task for students in almost all grades and subjects. Some of the underutilized resources in rural areas are discussed below.

Local Environment. Small rural schools have easy and safe access to nature and other features of the community. Local water sources, soil types, vegetation, wildlife, and architecture provide good laboratories for serious scientific investigation from kindergarten through high school chemistry and physics. Settlement patterns, demography, historical records, and employment trends provide a wealth of opportunity for social studies. Local speech patterns and legends can be the basis for the study of grammar and literary analysis. Community surveys and study of local business patterns provide useful and meaningful opportunities to study and apply mathematics and statistical analysis.

Local People. Rural communities are full of residents who have special skills and knowledge. Some may not be highly "educated" in a formal sense but they can be great teachers. For example, an person who teaches old-time children's games or how to clean and dress a chicken can spark a range of interests and opportunities for academic endeavor. Rural residents, especially older people, have skills and information, often related to self-sufficiency and environmental conservation, which are valuable to society and need to be transferred to young people. However, many of these skills, such as how to compost waste, practice animal husbandry, erect a sound building, or grow a garden are being lost. Because the money economy is likely to decline for many rural young people, it is essential that schools provide them with traditional skills of self-sufficiency. In addition to directly sharing their knowledge with young people, local residents are generally happy audiences for student productions and are glad to be interviewed or to lend an ear or a hand in a student effort.

Rich Local Culture. Culture is more than timeless artworks produced by the recognized masters. The first definition of *culture* in Webster's New World Dictionary is "cultivation of the soil".[3] Traditionally rural Americans have drawn their livelihoods from the soil through farming, timbering, and mining. The cultures rural communities have produced, their "ideas, customs, skills, arts, etc.",[4] are rich and varied. They are interlaced with the ethnic heritages of local residents--African, Native American, Scots-Irish, German, Eastern European, Hispanic, etc. Nevertheless, the disparagement of traditional rural cultures has led to their exclusion from school curricula and has often shamed students whose ways are notably "country". A re-introduction of local cultural skills and products provides opportunities for aesthetic development and creative expression and encourages intellectual reflection. Drawing on and valuing the local culture links students' experiences with standard academic work at the same time it improves self-esteem. Cultural traditions indigenous to almost every rural area include food production and preservation, handcrafts, carpentry, musical (especially singing) traditions and instruments, storytelling, folk dance with local variations on traditional dances, visual and folk arts, and a variety of "make do" products.

Variety of Local Circumstances that Need Documenting, Studying, and Addressing. Rural communities are generally poorly documented. For example, studies of water quality, cluster diseases, or childhood hunger tend to be located in urban areas where people and resources are concentrated. Rural communities are often misunderstood particularly when urban models are inappropriately applied. For example, library records may show poor rural patronage but fail to account for transportation difficulties which prevent rural residents from driving to the county seat. Rural communities also tend to be underserved by agencies and organizational structures. For example, bookmobiles have been largely discontinued in many states as library resources have been centralized in population centers; block grants tend to go to communities prosperous enough to provide documentation of need; and, many rural churches endure a parade of transient seminarians and young pastors waiting to move to larger and more prosperous congregations. While students in school cannot address all of these needs, they can provide essential documentation, study, and services that a rural community is unlikely to obtain elsewhere. Their education is enhanced by having responsibility for something that really matters. The school can also be an important institutional link to agencies for extending services into the local community. A good preliminary program is to ask students to develop and implement a plan for identifying community needs and resources.

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[3] David B. Guralnik, Editor in Chief, *Webster's New World Dictionary of the American Language*, Second College Edition, William Collins and World Publishing Co., Inc., 1972, p. 345.

[4] This is the sixth definition of "culture" in Webster's New World Dictionary.

EXAMPLES OF SCHOOL PROGRAMS. The following example programs were developed by small public schools in rural Alabama who are members of the PACERS Cooperative.[5] The programs have several common elements. In the first instance they all address a specific community need. They also use local resources, namely students, to generate information or provide services. The programs are integrated into school curricula taking advantage of the strengths that come from small size and a close relationship with the local community.

Lead Screening. In one school, teachers suspect that the high level of student behavior and health problems might be caused by lead poisoning. In response, students in science classes will test samples of water, soil, and paint from around the community for lead contamination. In addition, students will work with a physician to develop a health inventory to screen for symptoms of lead poisoning in students and community residents. Students will learn and apply principles of scientific investigation, experimentation, statistical analysis, human development, and physiology. They will also design the effort and write a report. If contamination is indicated, they will seek funds for clean-up.

Water/Sewage Research Project. One community needs to replace its antiquated water system. Yet it lacks the information it needs to apply for a grant or loan or to determine what new system would be best suited for the area. Students will analyze water quality, determine soil perk, document drainage, and help determine social and economic cost/benefits to replacing the current system.

Student-Run Businesses. In one school students became concerned that they would have to leave the community to find work after graduation. With the help of a teacher they began to brainstorm about what goods and services were needed in their area and how they might turn this need into job opportunities. They began to talk about their ideas in the community and soon decided to develop a comprehensive community survey to gather information on demographics, interests of local residents and their knowledge about the school. Working with several teachers they developed and tested their survey instrument. They then developed a plan to canvas door-to-door their entire school district and enlisted the help of other students to complete interviews. In the meantime, local residents opened three businesses suggested by the students. The survey generated a tremendous amount of interest in and support for the school. Students gathered information they needed and have started their own cooperative services business. In addition, they noticed a serious lack of information about what was going on in the area and decided to create a student-run community newspaper to serve local journalistic needs and provide a vehicle for communication within their community. Another school, frustrated by the high cost of computer equipment and their difficulty obtaining funds to purchase the equipment they needed, decided to start a student-run computer-assembly business. Their motto, "Building quality computers for students by students," indicates how their creative thinking is allowing their school to serve the computer needs of other schools with limited budgets as well.[6] Students now plan to develop a rural data base and make it available to other schools who are gathering information in order to develop a state-wide information and retrieval system for rural communities.

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[5] The PACERS Cooperative is a representative organization of 30 small public schools in rural Alabama who are working together to improve their schools and communities. It is sponsored jointly by the Program for Rural Services and Research (PRSR) at the University of Alabama and by ACCESS, Alabama's small school support organization. For more information contact Robin Lambert, Jack Shelton, or Addie Wilder (PRSR staff) at Box 870372/Tuscaloosa, AL 35477-0372/(205) 348-6432.

Video History. Teachers in one predominantly Black school were frustrated by the absence of serious reference to African American history in the textbooks and basic curriculum. They were also concerned that the school was not doing enough to value their community's culture and history and that as a result the self-esteem of students was suffering. They decided to turn students into historians and empower them to unearth their neglected history. Students are currently conducting audio and video interviews with area residents and collecting artifacts and documents. They intend to create a documentary on their area which they can share with other schools.

Greenhouses and Food Production. A number of teachers in many schools wanted students to have skills that could directly improve their own lives. These teachers understood food to be a basic element of human well-being and were concerned that many of their rural students lacked skills in food production and preservation. As a result these schools decided to have students build greenhouses onto their school facilities and to use the greenhouse as a basic resource across the curriculum. Their ideas include teaching plant biology and genetics, creating school gardens, establishing a school-based cannery, starting a livestock center, providing student-grown plants to every household in the area, managing a walking trail, identifying indigenous plant life, running small seedling services, creating a seed bank and providing information on plant varieties, and direct marketing student-grown produce in the community and in urban centers.

Home Building and Retrofitting. Deteriorated housing and the absence of affordable housing is a problem in many rural communities. Schools in the PACERS Cooperative have found a way to address this problem, fill a market niche, tap external resources, and teach students a variety of academic and self-sufficiency skills. Their answer is to have students build low-cost homes to the standards and requirements of housing agencies. The agencies in turn provide financing for local residents. Students gain valuable skills and are paid for the labor they put in outside of the school day. A local family gets an improved living situation. The economic level of the community is improved. And, money is turned over inside the local economy. Because most construction companies prefer not to invest in low-cost housing, especially in low population areas, the student efforts do not compete with other businesses.

Plays and Other Public Performances. Schools are reinstituting such local cultural traditions as plays, musical combos, dances, and public speaking events. These activities have largely been purged from most curricula yet they contribute significantly to school-community relations and to the overall enjoyment and well-being of the area. They can also provide important academic opportunities for students as well as opportunities for students to interact with local residents and participate in organizing a major local event.

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[6] For more information about Tiger Computers contact Program for Rural Services and Research/Box 870372/Tuscaloosa, AL 35487-0372/(205) 348-6432.

COORDINATING EFFORTS WITH STATE CURRICULUM GUIDELINES. State courses of study vary between subject areas, grade levels, and across states. They tend to be more or less specific about what skills and information must be conveyed and how. Generally they include a set of goals and objectives. Schools which can show that they are meeting the basic goals and objectives by exceeding the minimum requirements may free themselves from the constraints of an overly specified or generalized curriculum. Teachers interested in implementing a new approach will need to determine the basic material that must be covered. Then they will need to develop a plan for making sure that material is included in the program planned. The following tips may help improve curriculum and demonstrate academic integrity and, if necessary, compliance with regulations.

Design thematic, paradigmatic experiences that teach principles and raise questions. We all learn best from a paradigm that suddenly gives us a window on the world or a new perspective. Once we have this we can apply it in many circumstances. The more experiential our learning and the more opportunities we have to apply the principle the better we integrate the information and skill. For example, rather than presenting students with decontextualized information about energy in a science lecture, ask students to conduct an energy audit of the school. Among other things students will have to learn about various forms of energy, gain an understanding of what these energy forms mean in their environment, and consider the consequences of energy consumption. In addition, they will have to conceptualize a scientific investigation, the principles of which they can apply in a variety of settings.

Relate disciplines. Information in the world does not exist in a subject-area vacuum like it does in most classrooms, especially those at the secondary level. By taking a thematic approach to curriculum, students can learn in several subject areas at one time. For example, the energy audit can allow students to measure energy consumption in various classrooms and conduct a mathematical analysis. They can write a report which contains their findings and recommendations as part of their English class. As an art activity students can design improvements to the school which conserve energy and are also aesthetically pleasing. Thematic approaches will provide many opportunities for related study as well as productive tangential learning.

Addend specific information and supplement specified skills. If there is no way to demonstrate that all the skills or information required by the course of study are being taught, the required material can be supplemented in the form of worksheets and exercises.

The Necessity for Documentation. Non-traditional approaches require documentation beyond those of standardized teaching methods. Teachers implementing new programs should keep copies of lesson plans, tests, and student papers and projects. Where possible pre- and post-tests should be administered. Interviews with students, parents, and community residents can also be valuable in determining the approach's effectiveness.

THE EDUCATION REFORM/COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT LINK. Each of the programs described above contributes directly to the improvement of the local community and life within it. Each relies primarily on resources which had previously been overlooked--chief among them the capacities and commitment of young people. Each effort presents students with challenges well beyond those of a standard curriculum and also helps develop their good will and sense of responsibility. The efforts are inclusive and involve a variety of students. They represent efforts to reform both curriculum and school structures.

If rural communities are to survive and prosper, community development must take on a new meaning. It cannot mean the extraction of resources--raw materials and wealth, institutions, cash, and people. Communities must evaluate their own resources, find ways to renew rather

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than deplete them, and use them for their own long-term well-being. They must tailor their institutions, their schools being chief among them, to serve better both students and basic community needs rather than the perceived needs of urban society or a distant bureaucracy. By assessing their natural characteristics, determining real needs, and creatively utilizing resources small schools can become real assets to their communities which help solve local problems and improve the lives of residents. The school becomes a valuable resource for appropriate and sustainable development.

While policy in many states still pushes consolidation, small schools can use the rhetoric of reform to help define their own natural characteristics and strengths. The reform literature can also help schools re-claim their heritage at the same they create new and more appropriate models of schooling. Such efforts will require breaking the standardized norm, but support can be drawn from the reform literature and the burgeoning research on school size. Small rural schools already have much to teach the educational community of the United States. With latitude, imagination, and the well-being of young people at heart, they can point the way to more authentic and meaningful forms of schooling for students regardless of their geographic setting.

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Simulations in Collaborative Teaming: "How To" not "What To".

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Special Education literature and increasingly regular education literature, contain information on collaborative consultation and interactive teaming as a way to provide for special-needs students in the mainstream (Cook, & Friend,1991; Huefner, 1988; Idol, Paolucci -Whitcomb, & Nevin, 1986; West, & Idol, 1990). There is much information concerning the skills needed to do this successfully. The most frequently mentioned are communication and problem solving skills. Communicating through clarification, verbal reinforcement, paraphrasing, open-ended questioning, and listening and attending skills, promotes a willingness to disclose and discuss a learning or behavior problem. Familiarity with the sequential steps to problem solving: problem identification, intervention recommendations, goal setting, implementation, evaluation, and follow-up, assures an organized and thorough way to effect acceptable solutions.

While descriptions of these processes are very valuable to the training of educators to do collaboration and interactive teaming, they more often focus on "what to do" given the author's background and biases (Bauwens, & Hourcade, 1991). "How to" information, on the other hand, is very limited . The Department of Special Education in the College of Human Resources and Education at West Virginia University is engaged in the second year of a federal grant to train special educators to do collaborative consultation in schools that are adopting the model. During the 1991-92 school year, five trainees were placed as interns in elementary and secondary public schools in Monongalia and Preston Counties to act as collaborative consultants. Each school provided for the team, five regular class teachers and one special education teacher committed to serve on an interactive team with the collaborative trainees. Weekly seminars at the site served as staff development in communication and problem solving techniques. A site-based special education teacher helped to facilitate the seminars and at the same time acquired skills which could be put to further use when trainees were finished with their training and left the school.

Throughout the semester, excellent examples of appropriate and inappropriate interactions occurred. Through evaluations of the teaming process in connection with the training of the special educators to be collaborative consultants, the presenters found that team members consider experiencing and practicing the process to be the most valuable part of their training. Therefore, several scenarios were developed into simulations to be used in staff development at other sites since the usefulness of simulations has been well documented. At the ACRES conference, two of the scenarios are presented to session participants with sufficient time provided for discussion and critiquing. One of the scenarios utilizes a team of three regular educators and one special educator to demonstrate the problem solving process in collaboratively resolving an elementary school problem. The other demonstrates how two teachers, one a special educator, the other a regular educator, use cooperative or team teaching to present a lesson in a secondary classroom containing mainstreamed students.

In the context of interactive teaming in the collaborative problem solving process, objectives of the simulations are:

1. to demonstrate appropriate communication skills when defining a problem,
2. to demonstrate a collaborative means to arrive at alternative solutions, and
3. to demonstrate how the expertise of regular and special educators can be combined in teaching a lesson through cooperative or team teaching.

An additional focus of the simulations is to present practical special education strategies useful to mainstreamed, at-risk, or regular class students, which regular educators can implement in the classroom. In many cases both regular and special teachers have been assigned to collaborative situations with little or no training (Cook, 1991). Simulations have potential for responding to an immediate need for this training. Replication of similar situations in teacher training and inservice programs should prove to be valuable. Much of what is gained from observing and discussing the process is transferable to other training programs, as well as to actual situations in which teachers find themselves.

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Interactive Technology to Teach Rural Social Workers about Special Needs Children and Their Families

The current direction of public policy concerning human services, and current economic conditions support movement toward decentralization, networking, and interagency collaboration (Education and Human Services Consortium, 1991). Sharing of responsibility and expertise through collaboration and cooperation is a viable method for service delivery to rural children with disabilities and their families. Collaboration offers unique advantages in service delivery systems for exceptional children. It meets some of the unique problems of providing services for disabled students in rural areas where geographical isolation, population density, and limited fiscal resources are constraints which cannot easily be alleviated (Dettmer, Thurston, & Dyck, 1993).

A major player in the delivery of services to rural special needs children and their families is the rural social worker. Social workers do not have formal training in special education and yet they are important team members, especially with low-income or at-risk families. Not only are social work services part of IDEA, many families whose children are in special education are served by public social workers. Such children may be in foster homes, in group homes, or in families that require other services such as Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) or family preservation programs. As human service agencies and education agencies increasingly work together to provide for the multiple needs of disabled children and their families, it is essential that they understand each other's roles.

As is true with many other professionals serving rural areas, rural social workers are usually generalists. However, they serve multiple roles, even though they may not have the specific training necessary to work with disabled children and their families. The emphasis of teaming in IDEA as well as the necessity of teaming in rural areas because of the paucity of services and personnel, necessitates in-house programs to make generalists (social workers and others) into "specialists" who are more knowledgeable about special education and children and families with special needs. Collaborative efforts between special education and other social services, especially social workers, must be enhances for optimal service to disabled children and their families (Roth, 1989; Powers, 1990).

There are a number of barriers unique to the rural setting which may inhibit the collaborative efforts of service providers and which make training social workers in rural settings a challenging endeavor (Helge, 1981; Thurston, 1990). First, barriers to collaborative efforts include documented rural attitudes about asking for help and about mental health services and workers. Research in several parts of the country has demonstrated that rural respondents were not aware of the meager services that existed in their communities (Edgerton & Bentz, 1960), and that "one must be 'crazy' before seeking care" (Tranel, 1970). Traditional rural values of individualism and internal locus of control lead to the perception that asking for help is demeaning (Goldstein & Eichorn, 1961), and Johnson (1980) suggests that the visibility of the rural social worker only serves to augment the problem as clients feel that help-seeking is a public admission of weakness.

Wodarski and Naugher (1983), in researching mental health services, found that, compared to their urban counterparts, an extremely small percentage of the county's rural residents were being treated in the mental health center. They speculate that either a significant number of persons must be not viewing their problems from a psychological frame of reference, or they are coping with distress in other ways, such as utilizing the natural helping networks of rural areas. In addition, they found that clients of the rural mental health center in their study were not the typical urban image of persons receiving mental health care, that is, educated and articulate. Rather, they were uneducated, poverty-stricken, and alone. Wodarski and Naugher (1983) summarize by suggesting that social services in rural areas must endeavor to understand the mores and values on their community, learn about other services that are available, and they must also be award that traditional forms of helping may have limited impact on the rural residents for whom survival issues are of primary importance.

Michaux, Pruim, Foster & Chelst, (1973) and Nachtigal (1982) suggest that families and individuals living in rural areas are more tolerant of defiant behavior that are persons living in large urban settings, although Bagarozzi (1982) suggests that rural communities are less tolerant of "outside interference" such as in the creation of rural mental health centers. These characteristics of rural residents and rural communities have an impact of the need to collaborate and the ease (or difficulty) of interpersonal and interagency collaboration. They suggest the importance of a family-based or community-based approach to dealing with disabled children and their families.

Another barrier may be the competition and mistrust between formal and informal social service agencies (Thomas & Bell, 1969). This may severely inhibit the effort of individual service providers, such as special educators and social workers, to work together and to gain entry into each others' existing systems. Developing linkages has proved difficult in many programs designed to serve rural populations (Williams, 1983).

A final barrier to collaboration is the lack of knowledge of general social work practitioners about special education laws and services and about disabled children and their families. In addition, special educators often do not understand to role of the social worker and there is often little communication between the two, even though both may be working with the student and the family. As human service agencies and education agencies increasingly work together to provide for the multiple needs of rural disabled children and their families, it is essential that team members understand each others' roles (Dettmer, Thurston, & Dyck, 1993). Because of the paucity of such services for disabled students and their families in rural areas, collaborative efforts and mutual education is the most pragmatic approach to serve these families. Educating support staff and human service partners about special education services and students is crucial to the collaborative process called for in IDEA and is vital to providing the best services possible for students and their families.

Many approaches have been used to provide in-service training for social workers and other human service workers in rural areas. Too often, travel time and expense to a central training location makes traditional types of training difficult. Waiting until there are enough participants for a training at a particular rural location means expensive consultant time and travel. It also means that many staff do not receive training in a timely manner. In addition, special educators and administrators rarely have time to conduct such in-service training for support staff or for other agency team members

A common option for inservice training of education and human service personnel is continuing education at Universities (Barber, 1987; Benson & Hirschen, 1987). Not all rural residents are able to leave work to travel to University settings and few courses are offered at off-campus sites. While distance learning opportunities have multiplied greatly in the past several years, relevant course work and access to the technology necessary to participate in these opportunities may prohibit the wide use of distance education for educating rural social workers about special education laws, programs, and students.

A major technological advancement in training is the interactive videodisc-based instruction. This is a synthesis of instructional, video, and computer technologies which has been shown to be very effective in promoting learning and generalization (Muller & Leonetti, 1992). Research also indicates that effective interactive videodisc-based instruction produces greater retention rates than typical group instruction (Muller & Leonetti (1992).

Interactive videodisc-based instruction presents individualized training. The pace of instruction is controlled by the student's demonstrated understanding and the instruction is presented patiently and thoroughly. The technology has the capability of allowing the student to simulate the skills she is learning by interacting with the video image. Branching allows remediation of incorrect responses and provides for choices of relevant information, topics, and examples for individual students. The student moves through the entire instructional package, making choices of segments to review, study, or omit. Comprehensive tests assess overall understanding and skill and the student is reinstructed in those areas in which her understand or application in unacceptably low. According to Muller and Leonetti (1992), because the visual and audio imagery is so highly realistic, the percentage of learning that is transferred to the actual situation is very high.

Videodisc-based instruction combines two inexpensive, off-the-shelf technologies: the desktop microcomputer and the videodisc player. The computer control the instructional process and records each of the student's responses to provide a permanent progress record. The videodisc player supplies the television images and sound. The videodisc player has random access capability, an essential feature of individualized instruction. This feature allows the instruction to "branch" to remediation when necessary or to move ahead when the student demonstrates competency. Branching allows each student to receive the sequence and amount to instruction required to master the skills.

Instructional material is placed on the video-disc and a computer program is written to control the sequence of instruction. The program can be placed on a floppy disk or on a videodisc. Programs may be supported by print materials.

There are several inherent advantages for using interactive videodisc-based instruction which make the technology very appropriate to rural areas. First, the material can be developed specially for rural populations, with rural settings and rural variables taken into account. In addition, the computer program can be updated with new materials, such as updates on special education laws. Rural social workers can access the instruction at any time and they do not have to drive to a training center, nor does a teacher have to travel to the learners. They can receive the training when they need it; there is no need to wait until a group is formed or a consultant is available. And finally, student progress is recorded and can be used for awarding Continuing Education Units (CEU's) and for staff performance evaluation.

In summary, interactive videodisc-based instruction has the advantages of timeliness, flexible training periods, effectiveness, and multiple applications (Muller & Leonetti, 1992; Cartwright). It is capable of providing the type of staff development needed for busy rural human service workers who must be "Jills-of-all-trades" as well as specialists in providing services to disabled children and in collaborating effectively with special education professionals.

Interactive videodisc-based instruction is being used in a curriculum development project which is a joint effort between the Social Work Program and the Department of Special Education at Kansas State University, a land-grant University in rural north central Kansas. The purpose of the curriculum is to provide inservice training for rural social workers to develop skills for working with children and families. The first unit, which represents one videodisc and a floppy with the instructional program, is about child development and is meant to teach social workers about normal and at-risk development. The unit also focuses on special education laws and definitions and includes information about assessment so the workers will become knowledgeable members of a multi-disciplinary or trans-disciplinary team.

The competencies for the child development module were based on a state-wide survey of rural social workers and their supervisors, a review of the literature, and the expertise of the faculties of social work, early childhood education, and special education. The competencies are:

1. The worker will know the developmental terms: normal, disability, and at-risk.
2. The worker will know the names of the basic categories of special education classification in the state of Kansas.
3. The worker will know the services provided for children with disabilities, as indicated by IDEA
4. The worker will know common factors which may indicate at-risk development.
5. The worker will understand the relationship of learning theory to child development and remedial services
6. The worker will discriminate between these assessment types: screening, behavioral observation, norm-referenced, criterion-referenced, and family focused.
7. The worker will know the roles of various professional on a multi-disciplinary special education team.
8. The worker will define behavior in observable and measurable terms.
9. The worker will identify the domains of normal development and discriminate normal from development at risk.
10. The worker will understand the basic components of special education laws, specially early childhood special education.

The basic areas of the program are the overview, which established the need for social workers to be able to identify possible risk factors and possible developmental problems. This area also identifies other professionals, or collaterals, who will work with the social worker who deals with families with children with special needs and describes the roles of these professionals.

The second part of the curriculum focuses on domains of normal development and shows developmental milestones with examples from all ages and ethnic backgrounds. The third part of the curriculum covers development at risk and includes categorical areas of disabilities and risk factors, such as environmental, physical, and social factors which impact on development. Next is about assessment and includes developmental tools, behavioral definitions, and observational methods. The final areas is about family and community factors in development and ways to measure development based on information from the community or family. An example is the home visit. After each curriculum component, there is a brief review which determines whether the student understands the component well enough to go on to the next component. In addition, at the end of the entire module, the student completes a review which incorporates all the aspects of the curriculum in making decisions or recommendations regarding child development.

After the development of the competencies, the curriculum was designed to present the information and to teach the skills using instructional methodologies which are appropriate for interactive videodisc-based instruction. Videotapes were made to demonstrate the concepts included in the curriculum. For example, there is a college classroom where behavioral measurement is being discussed. There are video clips of many children and their families demonstrating developmental milestones and various disabilities. In addition, there are clips of social workers making visits and interviewing teachers. There are clips in special education classes.

The completed product will include supporting print media and instructions for the use of the program. It will be used for preservice and inservice training for social workers who serve in rural areas of Kansas. The branching and review sections of the curriculum will provide as assessment of the progress of students participating in the program. For preservice undergraduate students, field experiences will be arranged at rural sites. These field experiences will provide practical situations in which the competencies taught in the curriculum will be used and evaluated. Inservice students will be able to progress though the curriculum at their own pace and upon successful completion of the curriculum they will earn college credit or CEU's.

The need for social workers to become informed about special education regulations, programs, and students is vital to the collaborative efforts to provide comprehensive services to rural children. The possess unique skills which make them an invaluable member of the professional team. Training rural workers, who are generalists, about these issues involves the same problems faced by all inservice and staff development programs in rural and remote areas. The use of interactive videodisc-based instruction holds promise for quality training which is individualized, updatable, and assessable. Establishing expected competencies from field surveys and they designing video footage and computer programs to teach and evaluate the competencies are the major steps in providing interactive vidoedisc-based instruction to rural social workers.

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Serving Rural Preschool and Young Children with Handicaps

Significant problems confront early childhood professionals planning service delivery for preschool children in rural areas. Overcoming obstacles inherent to rural communities in the provision of effective and efficient service delivery consumes much of the rural professional's time. Further, Public Law 99-457 places additional demands on these professionals. This paper provides an overview of major provisions of P.L. 99-457, common problems faced by early childhood professionals serving young children in rural areas, and two constructs which may alleviate these problems.

Provisions of Public Law 99-457

The Education for the Handicapped Amendments of 1986 was signed into law by President Reagan in October, 1987. Sometimes called the Early Childhood Amendments, PL 99-457 requires public school education for children aged three to five who have disabilities and services for children from birth (0) to two (2) years at risk for developing disabilities. The purpose of education or services respectively is to ameliorate developmental difficulties which young children experience. Direct intervention and support services for families may minimize the impact of such disabling conditions. An overview of eligibility and service provisions of PL 99-457 is provided in Table 1.

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Insert Table 1 about here
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Service Delivery Problems in Rural Areas

Early childhood professionals serving preschool children in rural communities must possess and apply more comprehensive skills since resources available in urban centers may not be available in rural communities on a timely and consistent basis. Thus, rural early childhood professionals must possess skills which, to some extent, supplant those of other service providers in order to function independently. Specifically, these professionals must be trained in adaptation, accommodation, collaboration, and a variety of more diverse skills.

Rural communities have been characterized as increasing in population, having low tax bases, higher poverty levels, and having to provide costlier services due to transportation requirements and staffing needs. Further, rural communities often contend with scarce professional resources (Helge, 1984). These realities contribute to such difficulties as negative attitudes toward preschool children with handicaps, resistance to change, recruitment and retention of qualified professionals, funding and transportation issues, scarce support services, professional isolation, provision of services, and limited parental involvement as reported by Helge.

These realities and concomitant issues are often ignored by professional training programs. Due to the barriers present in rural communities and the lack of attention by professional training programs to them, rural administrators and early childhood professionals should begin to explore alternative service delivery methods such as collaboration and resource identification strategies.

Collaboration and Resource Selection Systems

Some collaborative planning tools, such as a resource selection system and an operational plan may assist service providers to identify hidden resources and overcome obstacles which traditionally prevent or impede effective service delivery. In the rural community, needed but untapped human resources to meet the needs of preschool children exist. Identifying these resources requires the professional ability to analyze the child's needs, generate multiple solutions, prioritize solutions, and plan for implementation.

Fimian, Fafard, and Howell (1984) developed a resource selection system adapted for this paper for early childhood professionals to plan service delivery for preschool children. Step one is examine and define the task, step two is identify the child's characteristics, and step three is select a worker type.

Tasks may be characterized as direct interaction of an instructional, semiinstructional or noninstructional nature or indirect interaction requiring administrative, managerial, clerical, or instructional preparation. Characteristics of the child focus on her or his age, possible handicapping condition, interests, needs, and adaptive behavior. Worker types are selected based on the information gathered based on categories listed above. Worker types may consist of agency professionals, educators, instructional aides, retirees, community volunteers, high school, elementary school, or college student volunteers.

When characteristics of the child, the task, and worker types have been determined, an operational plan adapted from West, Idol, and Cannon (1989) allows the early childhood professional to access resources for appropriate service delivery and weigh the consequences of a variety of strategies developed to access resources. Table 2 illustrates an operational plan developed to access assessment services for a young preschool child. The child's characteristics, the nature of the task, and a variety of worker types and concomitant consequences are evaluated in the plan.

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Insert Table 2 about here

- - - - - - - - - - - - - - - -

This early childhood professional, using the resource selection system and operational plan was able to find a long range solution to an on-going problem. Most importantly, these systems served as guides for the identification of existing resources in the rural community. Finally, proactive planning, encouraged by these systems, promotes effective service delivery for young children with handicaps in rural communities.

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TABLE 1
OVERVIEW OF PL 99-457*

Title I	Title II
Title I focuses on services for young children aged 0-2 with special needs.	Title II focuses on the provision of preschool services for young children with handicaps aged 3 to 5.
Eligibility Requirements	Eligibility Requirements
- Infant or toddler, aged 0-2 - Developmental delays in one or more of the following areas; cognitive, physical, language, psychological, self-help - Physical or mental condition which may result in developmental delays - Substantial risk of medical or environmental developmental delays	- Preschool child aged 3-5 - An identified handicap as specified in PL 94-142 (mental retardation, hearing handicap, deaf, speech impairment, visual handicap, serious emotional disturbance, orthopedical impaired, other health impairment, deaf-blind, multi-handicap, or specific learning disabilities)
Services	Services
- Requires a comprehensive, multi-disciplinary, interagency program of intervention services of all at-risk infants or toddlers with handicaps - Designate a lead agency appointed by the governor of each state to coordinate and oversee provision of services - Develop an Individualized Family Service Plan for each eligible infant or toddler - Provide case management services for each eligible infant or toddler - Provide early intervention services by qualified personnel and at no cost to parents except where state law provides for a system of payments.	- Incentive grants available to states for preschool services - Provide $3,800 for each newly identified preschool child - Educational programming including free appropriate public education, placement in the least restrictive environment, multi-factored and multidisciplinary assessment, an Individualized Educational Plan, due process for the child and family, a child find program to identify eligible children

* By 1990-91, states wishing to receive federal funds for preschool education programs serving children aged 0-5 must have addopted and implemented a preschool program for young children with handicaps aged 3-5.

Note. From "Rural Service: Considerations in Meeting the Intervention Needs of Preschool and Young Children with Handicaps" by S.C. Russell, E.U. Williams and V. Gold, 1992, Journal of the Ohio Elementary Kindergarten Nursery Educators, 12, p.58. Reprinted by permission.

Table 2
Sample Operational Plan

Child's Name: Curtice Christenson **Date:** 3/2/92

Primary Service Provider: Sheri Place

Service Needs: *administer the Brigance Diagnostic Inventory of Early Development*

Details: *Home not conducive to assessment since Curtice's mother sleeps during the day. Curtice does not follow one-step directions and speaks in two-word utterances.*

Alternate Solutions	Consequences	Change in Practice	Resource Significance	Priority
1. *Assess myself w. Brigance*	*Time intensive, limited time available*	[✓ 1*] 2 3	1* 2 [✓ 3]	2
2. *Select another test to administer myself*	*Test results may be less informative*	1 2 [✓ 3]	1 2 [✓ 3]	3
3. *Train retired teacher(s) to administer test(s)*	*Need time to locate and train but in future, trained resource*	1 [✓ 2] 3	[✓ 1] 2 3	1.5
4. *Contact county psychologist for*	*Time delay due to her large caseload*	1 [✓ 2] 3	1 2 [✓ 3]	2.5
5. *Refer Curtice to local school system*	*Local school not cooperative regarding assessment*	1 [✓ 2] 3	1 [✓ 2] 3	2

*1 = minimal, 2 = moderate, 3 = significant

Selected Solution: *Locate and train retired teacher(s).*

Implementation Steps:

1. *Contact supervisor for approval.*
2. *Contact local retired teacher association for volunteer(s).*
3. *Train volunteer(s) at County Extension Office.*
4. *Make home visit(s) to help volunteer get established.*
5. *Set up assessment date at County Extension Office.*

Monitoring Procedures (who, how, when): *Supervisor will evaluate volunteer's skill before he or she uses test w. Curtice.*

Evaluation Procedures (who, how, when): *Ms. Place will interview Mrs. Christenson and volunteer(s) for qualitative information about service.*

THE COMMUNITY OF CHILDREN: SOUTH CAROLINA CROSS AGE TUTORING

J. Elspeth Stuckey

I am the doctor. I pay housecalls to kittens.

Dear Dr. Stuckey,

> *Hi! How has life been treating you? I'm just writing to tell you about my visit to the Elementary School. It was fun being with my tutee, Quincy Mole. He is a very nice boy. I hope that we can go to the Elementary School every day, but being with them makes me feel like they are my own children. But I don't want that much kids because they will drive me crazy! But, I can handle those little kittens. Well, that's about all I have to say about my visit.*
>
> *Meme*
> *8th grade*

Of course, my visits are not limited to felines.

Dear Dr. Stuckey,

> *I hadn't talk to you in ages. I thought that you had fired me from the cross-age tutoring program for being a pig for books.*
>
> *Damien*
> *7th grade*

And, of course, I visit creatures of the two-legged variety, as well. Frequently, these creatures find it satisfying to conduct the bipedal intervention themselves:

Dear Jennifer,

> *My name is Dennis. I am ten years old. I am in the 4th Grade. I like tutoring. All the kids names are Brooks, Tasha, Deshawn, Chris, Ruby, Chakeima, Antonio, Jama, Pamela, Shameeka, Kevin, Tyrone, Kelvin, Charela, Sharmain, Clint, Kathy, Sommer, Jerome, Melissa, Antwana, Laronda, Andrea. Clint is my twin. I am a real big boy. I am smart. I really enjoy tutoring. I haves to go. By Jennifer.*
>
> *Your Pal,*
> *Dennis Hudgins and*
> *Antonio Graves*

And so goes my practice. I am a traveling doctor, and my territory is rural South Carolina. I can't do much for sore throats or broken bones or tuberculosis, which those little kittens have in South Carolina and, in that sense, I am a lesser doctor. Nonetheless, the program and the simple tools in my briefcase are capable of many wonders.

In fact, I would not call myself a doctor (aside from the academic obvious) if illness were not a social metaphor for the lives of the thousands of children I see regularly. Let the joyful tone of the letters from the children not mislead you. The children of rural South Carolina live in poverty as grim as any, and the ones who write the letters are invariably categorized as at-risk. But let me be a little bit more straightforward about the program of which I speak and the interest it may hold for American education.

I direct the South Carolina Cross-Age Tutoring Project. Whereas the name is a mouthful, the model is elegant. In a nutshell, the practice works like this. The project matches older students with younger students for short, regular periods of time during the school day. The older students tutor the younger students in reading and writing. After the tutoring sessions, the older students make rapid field notes of their experience. Once a week, the older students write letters to me (or to another outside participant), detailing the tutoring events of the week. I write them back.

Now for the operation, or, as we elegantly put it, the pathology of the program.

The students can be of any grade level, as long as the gap in ages is appropriate. In the seventeen school districts in South Carolina, the matches among classes vary according to location and ease. Juniors and seniors in high school tutor kindergartners; seventh graders tutor second graders; eleventh graders tutor seventh graders; fifth graders tutor first graders. One of the most hilarious and successful sites matches first grade tutors with four years old; no one can read in the beginning, except in the most caring and profound sense of reading.

Students meet anywhere. Some meet in classrooms, some in libraries, some in gymnasiums (yes, basketball practice occurs at the same time on occasion), some in cafeterias (no, eating is not allowed). When the rooms are carpeted, the students lie around the floor; otherwise, they lie around in chairs. If the schools are adjacent, the students walk to their destinations. To distant schools, students take school buses or vans or cars. Almost always, the older students travel to the younger students. Very special occasions arise when older students invite younger students into their domains.

What do the students do? For twenty minutes once or twice a week, the older students read children's books--to the children.

The books are those on hand, library books or classroom stock. Often, the books are somewhat ratty and old; sometimes, a newly ordered set of fairytales drops from the funded sky. In addition to reading, the children talk, laugh, write, draw, twirl, sigh, fall asleep, race around, recite poems, watch a video, play games, make up games, put stickers on their noses, etc. (These behaviors are not the sole province of the youngest students. It is affecting to watch eighth graders discover toys in a kindergarten room.)

What do the teachers do? Perhaps it is easier to account for what the teachers do not do. The teachers do not do paperwork (we do not count stuffing student letters into manila envelopes or distributing return correspondence). The teachers do not give tests. The teachers do not tutor. The teachers do not write proposals or check off lists. What teachers do most often is watch, smile, give suggestions, talk to each other about the students, and sometimes drive the bus. Another thing, of course, is that teachers respect and capitalize on the behavior and progress of students. *My students just think these junior high kids are the cream of the crop. I think working with children older than they are, my students try harder with their tutors than they do with me.* The observation is generous, but we might ask in what conditions is it usual for kindergarten teachers to make such remarks about eighth graders? In this project, the conditions and the observation are typical. Typical, too, is the camaraderie that develops among teachers of widely ranged grade levels.

And the problems? To paraphrase real estate agents, "Logistics, logistics, logistics." To mix metaphors, matching class schedules sometimes rivals the operations room in the Pentagon, but after a year or two of the project, the logistics become routine, even when teachers' schedules are dumped upside down which they often are. Even the idea of using school buses or vans stops turning the hair gray of administrators who formerly found comfort in idle school buses during school hours. Usually teachers organize initial pairs or pods of students, but matriculating tutors (and tutees) master the responsibility with aplomb. Black children tutor white children; boys, girls; and all the other combinations.

Dire circumstances, which everyone awaits breathlessly, rarely materialize. When they do, once again, the students come to the fore. How do we know? The students tell us:

> *Dear Dr. Stuckey,*
>
> *Hi! How are you doing? I just wrote to tell you that everything is going good around here. I got in a fight last Thursday and now I'm in In School Suspension with nothing to do, so I decided to write you. You asked me to tell you about my fight, but I would rather not.*

What's in the past is in the past and I would like to keep it that way and just forget it. Anyway, I can't go two Cross-age tutoring meetings, but other than that everything is just fine. I have two intelligent tutees who are willing to learn and do their work. I hardly ever have to ask them to pay attention, and their always alert and ready for our two weekly visits. Well, I need to go now. I'm running a little low on words. So, I'll write you some other time.

Sincerely,

Timothy

My name is Traci Hinshaw. Sandy got sick. I had to help her to the restroom.

Your friend,

Traci

How do we know it works? The answer, itself, deserves a separate discussion, one that goes toe to toe with the standard methods of assessment. This question usually implies test scores. Do the scores ratify our existence? I prefer to save the answer for fights, but in the interest of the truly fearful, yes, the test scores go up. The important assessment is in cross-age tutoring is built-in and self-evident. To discover progress, we simply consult the letters.

Okay, so how much does all of this cost? To allay my own apprehension at how pat this story may sound thus far, let me add to the question, "And what fancy gimcracks shoot up the expense?" On the first count, the project costs next to nothing. I supply stamps and envelopes and spiral bound notebooks (which cost .16 apiece). Sometimes, I provide books or magazines or stories requested by tutors.

Dear Dr. Stuckey [writes the pig for books],

Would you mind if I asked you this: Would you buy me six comic books? The reason I want six comic books is because, do you remember the other comic book you bought me? That was the most interesting comic book I've ever read. And I saw my friend David Martin reading SPIDERMAN and THE INCREDIBLE HULK. The books had looked very interesting to read, so that's why I am asking you to give me six comic books. And this is my last time asking you for books because school is about to end May 31st.

You, as well as I, may have misgivings about supplying children with off-the-shelf mayhem. I asked the pig for comic book about the violence. His reply: *I know they are violent by they* *are just so exciting. I was wrong about little kids getting them. They are violent to them.* The 'wrasslin' magazines' desired by pint-sized third graders (boys and girls) give me special pause. On the other hand, wrasslin', rap, and comic books are not written to grade level, so to speak, but grade level failures somehow manage the vocabulary, the comprehension, and the reflective abilities dispossessed by the standard fare. Moreover, the contemporary drivel opens avenues of discussion. Rarely do the requests remain static. The dissertation on comic books was accompanied by the following request:

> *Oh, I almost forgot Mrs. Stuckey do you be seeing that commercial When Theres a Will Theres an A. Well I don't mean to ask you this but will you buy me it. I want it because I want to be more good at my school work. I heard it come in three sets, grade school, high school, and college. The real reason I want the the tape is because I have trouble with my math. When I use to be in Mrs. Harrison [resource] class I use to do fourth and third grade work and that was easy math work. Then when I got in regular classes that when the hard work come in. When it comes to math my memory is not good. That is because like when I do division I begin to know how to do it then the next day it is hard like a rock to me. That is why I want the tapes or tape. If you don't find any information on how to get it ask someone did they heard of it. Then if they didn't, look at the T.V. on Saturday or Sunday.*

Electronic mail (E-MAIL) is a similar story. Up front, the costs are higher. A school requires an available phone line, a computer and modem, a contribution of time to learn the technology, software, and money to pay for an on-line account. The network we use costs .15 a minute. On a per student basis, the money is negligible, however, and the benefits expansive.

E-MAIL, and computers in general, threaten those of us born under the star of middle-age. Yet children, even those whose electricity in the home as a sporadic affair, are not intimidated. E-MAIL and word processing are mastered quickly by many children, and wonders of wonders, these children are able to teach other children what to do. The following is an E-MAIL message from two students inputting on the same computer; the two just met for E-MAIL training.

> *my name is jason. My name is Shamonia. How old are you? I am eleven years old.What School are you from? I am from Branchville.What grade are you in? I am in the fifth grade. Have you enjoyed yourself today? Yes I have. Shamonia Baxter and Jason Yankey. Scott's Branch [High School] and Branchville [Elementary School].*

The communication and training are not limited to students, either.

> *FROM:* *EUREKA::OUJDVS*
> *TO:* *NTAHLLD, OUESTCK*
> *Subj:* *HELLO FROM JENNIFER*
>
> *HI, HOW ARE YOU? I AM DOING GREAT. WE GOT YOUR MESSAGE THIS MORNING. TO ANSWER THE PHONE IT IS OPEN APPLE A. TO HANG UP IT IS OPEN APPLE H. WHERE ARE YOU FROM? WE ARE FROM BRANCHVILLE HIGH SCHOOL. WELL I GOTTA GO FOR NOW. SEE YA!!*
>
> *JENNIFER* [remember Jennifer?]

"Where are you from? " was a public school 130 miles away. The person requesting the information was a PhD candidate learning to use E-MAIL. Not only did she get her information, the student forwarded the message to my electronic mailbox, and now I have forwarded it to you.

Talent works in mysterious ways. Some of the students in the project are both shy and painfully limited in their literacy. E-MAIL provides a way in. A batch of letters arrived in my computer one day.

> *Let's get down to business, the reason why I am writing to you is because cross-age tutoring makes me and my tutee feel good. I don't dislike nothing about tutoring my tutee because tutoring is very nice and fun too!*
>
> *Sincerely yours, CATHERINE MITCHELL, DIANE MITCHELL*

The letter is fine, if mushy. But what is most interesting is the final communication in the batch, which read:

> *THIS IS DEDRICK BRYANT. I SENT THE MAIL TO YOU. HAVE A NICE DAY.*

Dedrick is a lovely, tough case. He not only hates to write, he can hardly bring himself to do it. Yet Dedrick mastered the technology before any of the other students, an intuitive allowance for which his teacher deserves praise. The student distrusts his own writing, but he can enable the writing of others, and he can assume the pleasantness that comes with expertise. I SENT THE MAIL TO YOU. HAVE A NICE DAY.

Here is one last example of a nice day, the last day of school. The writer is a teacher who explains the circumstances herself:

FROM: EUREKA: NTGWRRL
TO: OUESTCK
Subj: PARTY

ELSPETH, I AM SITTING IN MY CLASSROOM SURROUNDED BY DRAMA STUDENTS EATING POTATO CHIPS AND DRINKING COKES. AND COOKIES TOO. I AM DEMONSTRATING E-MAIL TO SOME STUDENTS WHO HAVE MISSED OUT ON IT ALL YEAR! GRETCHEN SAYS HI AS SHE FLIES OUT THE DOOR ON THE WAY TO CATCH HER CARPOOL WHICH IS WAITING MOST IMPATIENTLY WITH THE ENGINE RUNNING. TODAY WAS A WILD DAY - HONOR ROLL COOKOUT, DRAMA PARTY, ETC. HOPE WE CAN STAY IN TOUCH DURING THE SUMMER. OH, TODAY WE PRESENTED THE TUTORS WITH DICTIONARIES. THEY HAVE USED THEM ALREADY. IT'S BEEN A GOOD YEAR! THANKS FOR ALL YOUR HELP.

NELLE

Of course, we did not forward this message to the computer specialist in the project, who thinks it a sin mix potato chips with electronic chips.

But chips are not the point. The point is very serious, serious as the lives and opportunities of children caught in a world of penury and unconscionable priorities. You know as well as I do that at-risk is a sentence for life for most of the children caught in its vacuum. That is why the exceptions are exceptions, and why exceptions do little more than strike us dumb when they occur.

Dear Dr. Stuckey,

Hi! What's up? Not much here. Since I saw you last, in Orangeburg, my life has changed alot. I've made the HONOR ROLL! Talk about surprised! This was once in 14 years of school! Bout time A?

Chris

Dear Dr. Stuckey:

When I first became a tutor, I didn't like children very much, and I got mad easily. Now, after being with a crowd of children, I've grown to care about them and my patience seems to be a little longer. I love to spend time with the kids and hope to be a third grade teacher someday. Another reason I enjoy going [to the elementary school] is because they make me understand that life isn't all that bad. They try to find the good things before the bad and they are very open with me. There are many more things I enjoy about the program but really can't put into words. There is just so *much I love about the program I wouldn't have the time to write it all down. If they'd give me--$25-$50 a week or a month, I wouldn't take it. Just helping the kids is good enough. I know that sounds extremely untrue but I mean it. Sometimes they give me a hard time but I've learned to overlook it.*

Bridgett

The possibilities for students are rich. Yet if we are honest about American education, we can identify the children of remediation in our schools simply by walking down corridors and inspecting the racial and economic makeup of the occupants. As with Ellison's invisible man, most of the labels are manufactured by those who refuse to see the children. Instead, the children are confused with the blighted landscape.

Yet whereas the failure to distinguish between children and their environs is unforgivable, it would do no service to pretend that much of the landscape is blighted almost beyond recognition. Let me give you a brief description of the rural landscape that is home to cross-age students based data of five years ago. Forty percent of the state income tax returns in Nine of the cross-age counties report taxable income of less than $8,000 per year; two of the counties reported fifty percent of such taxation. Eight of the school districts (which do not necessarily cover entire counties) reported over forty nine percent of the population without high school diplomas. Total resident infant mortality (for 1985) varied from a low of six percent to a high of twenty six percent; in these same counties, black infant mortality varied from twelve percent to thirty percent. The unemployment rate for all but three of the counties was over eight percent. Of the civilian work force, 2.2% were employed as farmers; 5.2% as laborers; 12% as service workers. The largest segment of workers, 14.8% were employed as clerical workers.

There are most categories, of course, whose statistics I will not belabor: children living in single-parent households, children living in poverty, children admitted to emergency rooms, children born addicted and underweight, children born to children, children in substandard housing, children tested unready for school at age four, and so on. Interesting (or at least as far as I can determine), South Carolina keeps no statistics on children placed in remedial programs much less those who matriculate in remedial programs. However, you are not unfamiliar with these children; you have just read their letters.

The devastation is not the statistics, however. The devastation is their consequences. What must one conclude about the status of racism when most of the children in remediation are black? What must one conclude about social class when almost all the remedial children are poor? What is the future of black remedial students when the meager employment for them supersedes their education?

The answers that this and other states give are mendacious. The educational establishment issues demands for greater preparedness for school and a stronger focus on basics. Yet I ask how much more basic can education be than remedial classes, and how more prepared children can become when the income of their communities is desperate? In other words, why do we expect action from those we so systematically undermine?

We may not have the right to point the finger at anyone but ourselves, but we would be fools not to listen to the answers that, in spite of it all, the children of the underclass give. In fact, they have been giving the answers for decades. The one thing about cross-age tutoring is that it steals from educational principles long tested and proven. These principles were the province of one-room school houses, and the one room school houses which we have done little more than patronize were those of black children and teachers in the rural South. If this article has mislead on any ideas, they are this: cross-age tutoring is neither a middle class inspiration nor are its roots primarily white. In black education, especially in the Jim Crow South, the rationale for the precedents of cross-age tutoring were survival and prosperity in a world that sanctioned neither for many practitioners.

We still have a long way to go. A final lesson from the legacy of cross-age tutoring focuses on present day dynamics of racism. The following are several chronological excerpts from letters written by a senior in high school. The senior, who tutored elementary students, was herself part of a class whose members had all failed the South Carolina exit exam twice and who were banking on a third attempt. The senior's name is Tina.

> *October 18, 1991*
>
> *Dear Dr. Stuckey:*
>
> *On Thursday, October 17 1991, I went to Nix Elementary School to tutor a student and his name is Malachi McDowell. He's 7 year old and is in the 1st grade. I read to him a book called The Little House. At first Malachi and I didn't really got along, because he told me that he doesn't like me, because I'm black. It hurt my feelings to hear a little kid say something like that. I will keep tutoring him, because the Cross-Age Tutoring Project will help him to read better later on in the future. I enjoy Cross Age Tutoring Project. I hope next week Malachi and I will be a better day.*

November 6, 1992

Dear Dr. Stuckey,

I was very surprise, because Malachi was very good, he's getting a little bit better especially with his attitude. I read to him a book called Gator Pie. Malachi participant very well with me. Malachi liked the book. He even laugh, smiled, point to the pictures and talked. My other classmates are having problems with their tutee. I try too give them advices about what happen between Malachi and I so they can get the understanding with their tutee. I hope before SCCAT is over Malachi and I will become real closet pals.

November 8, 1991

Dear Dr. Stuckey,

I had an okay time with Malachi. Malachi is starting to really change. I read to him a book called Madeline Rescue. To me Malachi loves books that deals with animals doing funny things, meaning he likes animal books. He always asking me was he good or bad. I love to read too him regardless if he is good or bad, because everybody needs to be given a chance.

November 22, 1991

Dear Dr. Stuckey,

This week over at Nix was an okay week. What I'm going through with Malachi, I think I ought to receive the Malachi Award. . . . Malachi said he has two dogs. I forgotten their names, because sometimes it's hard to understand what he is saying. Malachi has a slight speech problem. Malachi is coming along very [nicely]. He comes in and is ready to read.

December 9, 1991

Dear Dr. Stuckey:

This week over at Nix I was very pleased with Malachi's behavior. He was ready to read and talk about the book. He really made me laugh when he was telling me about getting his new haircut and the funny part was that his dad cut his hair. I'm staring to love him just like a little brother even though I don't have a little brother.

Tina passed the exit exam on her third try. I do not know where she is today (this program has its weaknesses), but early on I wrote to her: *Tina, I hope you are going to be a teacher one day. You handled a tough situation very well. . . . You said Malachi hurt your feelings--he hurt mine, too--but you said you could hang in there. You know, I see little kids all over South Carolina, and once in awhile, I find a child who sounds not like a child but like a misbegotten adult. The thing is that kids usually learn more from behavior than they do from talking. Let me know how things go. You have already shown a lot of maturity and kindness.*

Cross-age tutoring is not going to eradicate racism. However, the project shows us how racism may be converted when the conversion handles the equation. Under the social arch of racism, other labels are also converted.

An expedient short-hand description of the program is that we ask older students to tutor younger students. But if the sole principle were age, however, we would be caught in a contradiction. Teachers are older than students, yet even the teachers say that in many ways the older students do a better job.

Another expedient gets somewhat closer to the truth of the matter. We ask at-risk students to tutor other at-risk students, i.e., the program does consist of the smart (or gifted and talented) ministering to the dumb. This idea brings comfort if for no other reason than Americans like to think of themselves as egalitarian, and, when that doesn't work, we almost all believe in the maxim of rising to the occasion. The belief seems to work because young children rarely view themselves as relegated to the educationally damned for instruction. In addition, older students who have learned to see themselves as misfits acquire a totally different experience when others respect them. The responsibility for younger students becomes a practice, and even students who believe that reading and writing have eluded them are willing to acknowledge that reading and writing are important for little kids. Older failures know in their bones what failure feels like, and they do not wish it on others. Writes a senior who is tangling with course work requirements, *You get to know them like your best friend. I can change my schedule; you know, Lorenzo, he's going to be looking for me.*

Yet even this shorthand is lacking. To believe that long-term remedial students can "outdo themselves" is to fail to relinquish the bottom line notion that at-risk is a sentence for life. The real reason cross-age tutoring works is that it capitalizes on expertise. Even tutors with minimal reading abilities can read children's stories. Sure, they may miss a lot of words, and the tutors may not "comprehend" the stories in the assessable sense of the word. But, stories read over and over acquire meaning, as do the conditions for care and reflection. The tutors and the tutees demonstrate that they can learn, but they also demonstrate that they already know a lot.

The fact is that we hide behind our issues of standard English, literacy levels, correct grammar, and proper register. You surely have noticed that the letters are error prone. But the reality is that the letters are far more linguistically correct than incorrect, and the conditions for discussions of correctness permeate the pages. The conditions, however, are precisely what we miss when we engage in academic hypochondria. If we look at what the letters are about, we are witnessing extraordinary examples of able humanity. What we see again and again are conditions of caring, growth, and insight. To be frank, literacy in cross-age tutoring is a front, just as grocery stores were fronts for community schools in which black voters learned to read and write in order to register to vote.

More than this, we are witnessing these conditions among the young. Listen to the "Do's" of cross-age tutoring, written by eighth graders:

> *Do be nice, so they'll be nice.*
> *Do be trustworthy to tutees, so they'll learn to trust you.*
> *Do be patient with tutees because they have patience.*
> *Do be helpful so they can feel free to come to you anytime.*
> *Do keep up your work so they can look up to you and do the same.*
> *Do watch what you say around them because most likely they will learn to say the same.*

When the young teach the young, they transcend the boundaries that have been set for decades.

A major dilemma I have with articles like this one is that cross-age students may read them, or, to put it another way, that the articles are not intended to be read by cross-age students. What will these students think, I wonder, if they discover me couching their lives in terms of impoverishment? What message does it send to students who ignore the labels to see their efforts branded? I cannot banish the thought that whatever gives me the right to feel at liberty to discuss students as if they existed only for our discussion must also implicate me in the problem. For years now, I have learned to write and respond to students, even the tiniest students, as bright, important human beings. They are not, in spite of our love, kittens; they do not have nine lives. The best answer I can give at this time is the students will tell me. I know because I will show them what I have written. To do so is a principle of cross-age tutoring. I have an idea of what they might say, but I can be tutored.

One of the cross-age tutoring sites is Scott's Branch High School in Summerton, South Carolina. Summerton is the city in which Brown vs. Board of Education originated. A project activity was to view a video tape about area descendants from Sierre Leone. The students, seventh and eleventh graders, wrote a synopsis of the video to send to the other sites. In the synopsis, the students wrote of the value of family, connections, identity, and the refusal to give up in hard times. *The most interesting part of the film for the senior high students was to see how hard our forefathers struggled in the fields but still survived on 'a little of nothing' that they received for what they did. The junior high students found it most interesting that there were so many similarities in the two cultures: the songs that were sung, the work that was done, and the way the people survived.* Yet two additional features distinguish the effort. First, all the students signed the document. Second, the document ended with a message to all cross-age students. It said:

WE SALUTE YOU!

A salutation to readers is not the usual parting shot of an academic masterpiece, maybe more suited to a manifesto. Yet how better to sum up our response to the efforts of cross-age tutors and what they have taught us. We salute you.

Edmund Coombe
West Virginia University

Sheltered workshops and transition: Old bottles, new wine?

Sheltered workshops can be compared to old bottles, some would save them, even thinking they are valued antiques, while others would smash them and discard them. Sheltered workshops are indeed old, they go back about four hundred years to one established by St. Vincent de Paul at the end of the 16th century in Paris. The goal of providing a protected (noncompetitive) work environment first appeared in the United States about 150 years ago, dating from the Perkins Institute in 1837 where John Pringle was the first workshop director (Nelson, 1971). The value of sheltered workshops has long been disputed, but in the past two decades concepts such as normalization, mainstreaming and transition have increasingly raised questions about these largely segregated facilities. As parents, special educators, and adult service providers began devising transition plans in the 1980's, traditional workshops were seen by many as inappropriate postsecondary destinations for students with disabilities. In fact, some states have adopted policies of drastically reducing allocations to sheltered workshops and diverting funds to programs such as supported employment. In other states, including some which are largely rural with high unemployment rates, the "old bottles" are mainstays of the local economy. Some of these workshops have seen "new wine" poured into them in the form of incentives for service innovations and mission expansion. This paper provides an overview of the "old bottles," presents information on the transition process, and allows the reader to sample the "new wine."

Historical overview of the "old bottles" (sheltered workshops)

The workshop associated with the Perkins Institute for individuals with visual handicaps, which opened in 1837 and closed in 1951 after 114 years of operation, was illustrative of "categorical" workshops. Categorical workshops were established to serve a particular disability. Public financed community workshops for individuals with visual handicaps had their beginning in Oakland, California in 1885. These categorical workshops multiplied and in the early 1960's the National Industries for the Blind reported 120 workshops serving approximately 5,000 workers. Part of the reason for this growth can be attributed to the 1938 Wagner-O'Day Act (now the Javitz-Wagner-O'Day Act) which mandated government purchases of certain workshop products (Nelson, 1971).

In addition to providing a protected work environment many workshops established another goal for their clients/employees - entry into or return to competitive employment. This was true of some other "categorical" workshops which were organized for tuberculosis patients, individuals with physical disabilities, and individuals with emotional disturbance. Many of the latter were similar to the Perkins Institute shop in that they were connected with public or private residential facilities (institutions). These workshops were often referred to as rehabilitation facilities.

Many sheltered workshops are private not for profit organizations, almost none of these workshops are fully funded by public or private sources. The "salvage shops," which may be exemplified by Goodwill Industries, are illustrative of not for profit shops. Many of these shops, which also had their beginnings in the last century, were started by individuals or organizations with a religious affiliation and served poor and disadvantaged as well as individuals with disabilities. Around the middle of this century these shops expanded their services and diversified from salvaging and refurbishing into subcontracting. In the late 1960's Goodwill workshops reported serving 91,500 individuals through 135 shops (Nelson, 1971).

Community workshops for individuals with mental retardation, which got underway in the middle of this century, are also illustrative of not for profit organizations. Because many extant categorical workshops would not accept individuals with mental retardation, with the exception of some who functioned in the mild range, community workshops were initally established by parent groups. Some of these workshops had other missions and services such as "preschool" programs. In 1957 the National Association for Retarded Children (NARC, now ARC-US) reported 108 workshops for individuals with mental retardation. Much of the growth of these workshops came about because of the 1954 Vocational Rehabilitation Act amendments which provided 150 research and development grants over a 10 year period. By the end of the 1960's there were 500 workshops certified by the U.S. Department of Labor serving about 14,000 individuals with mental retardation (Nelson, 1971).

According to Kiernan and his colleagues: "the development of employment training programs is following a course similar to that of residential services." In a similar fashion to large institutions giving way to community living arrangements for individuals with disabilities, Kiernan et. al. indicated that (various) changes "have pointed out the need for and appropriateness of providing employment services for adults with severe disabilities in integrated work settings (Kiernan, Schalock & Knutson, 1989 p. 3)." Although Kiernan and his colleagues may be correct, sheltered workshops remain a major provider of employment and employment services for individuals with disabilities. The average number of workshops per state may be as high as 100 as various estimates of the total number of workshops in the United States during the 1970's and 1980's range between 5,000 and 6,000. Table I supplies some information on the types, common elements, and business activities of todays sheltered workshops.

Table I Sheltered Workshops Information

Types:
1. Evaluation and training for (re) entry into competitive employment (transitional or rehabilitation workshop)
2. Extended employment workshop (long term full or part-time inhouse employment).
3. Work Activities Center (emphasis on training and activities of daily living, often not on preparation for competitive employment).

Note: There is a possiblity that rural community workshops may offer services of all three types.

Common elements:
1. Offer rehabilitation services, employment training, and full employment.
2. Provide meaningful work - they are businesses

Business activities:
1. Subcontracting - completion of specific tasks for a manufacturer (e.g., assembling and packing)
2. Prime contracting/manufacturing - design, produce, market, and deliver or ship product.
3. Reclamation - restore salavageable material for possible sale
4. Service contract - provide service such as maintenance of building, grounds to businesses
5. Recycling

Adapted from Heward & Orlansky (1984). Exceptional Children. Columbus, OH: Merrill Co.

Research on sheltered workshops is not plentiful, but there are a number of national organizations such as the National Association of Rehabilitation Facilities (NARF) and the National Industries for the severely handicapped (NISH) which periodically survey their members. These surveys have been conducted to establish data bases on production and service capabilities and to match these with possible Javits-Wagner-O'Day contracts. Recent interest by researchers in the follow-up of individuals with disabilities who are transitioning from school has revealed some information about sheltered workshops. For example, Schalock, McGaughney & Kiernan (1989) conducted a national survey of vocational rehabilitation facilities. They contacted 2,500+ facilities and reported that of the over 150,000 individuals served about16-18% were placed in nonsheltered settings (8% in competitive employment and 8% in supported and transitional employment). Individuals placed in the nonsheltered settings had earnings which at least doubled those of the sheltered workers (e.g., $3.00+ hr. v. $1.50 hr.). Two-thirds of the sheltered workers were developmentally disabled and one-third of sheltered workers worked full time. Some part-time nonsheltered employees returned to the workshop for additional work (Schalock et. al., 1989). Other researchers have focused on workshop employees/clients, conducting studies on quality of life variables, community adjustment variables, and occupational information and vocational interest variables.

Transition process and services

Virtually everyone in special education, rehabilitation, and related human services fields is familiar with the results from the myriad of follow-up and follow-along studies investigating the transition process of youth with disabilities. Studies done in the mid 1980's reported unemployment rates of transitioning students as high as 80% and even drops in the fulltime employment rate from 29.3% in 1972 to 27.4 % in 1984 (Habeck, Glavid, Frey, Chadderden & Tate, 1985). Nearly a decade later this picture has changed somewhat as results indicate that employment rates have improved for some individuals with disabilities, but not for others. A recent report on transition outcomes in Iowa cites that about 50% of individuals with learning disabilities were employed fulltime (Sitlington, Frank & Carson, 1992). Other researchers in Washington found that no individuals with behavior disorders were earning minimum wage and 30% were not engaged in any meaningful activity two years after leaving school (Edgar & Levine, 1987). Individuals with mental retardation in the mild range have employment levels slightly lower than their peers with learning disabilities (Sitlington et. al., 1992), while individuals with moderate to severe retardation often fare even worse than their peers with behavior disorders.

There may be many ways to improve the transition process for individuals with disabilities such as one approach suggested in much of the transition literature - utilizing a comprehensive array of services. (Examples from the Idaho Department of Education of transition planning materials, which include desired services, are attached as Appendices A and B). Utilizing an array of services approach may be feasible in metropolitan areas, but finding and accessing adult services in many rural areas is difficult. A previously cited study, for example, found that in Iowa less than 10% of the more than 600 individuals with mild disabilities availed themselves of post secondary programming or contacted vocational rehabilitation services. Instead, more than 80% reported finding their jobs (which were primarily as laborers or service providers) themselves or with the help of family and friends, even though over 60% were aware of and had contacted either the Iowa Job Service or JTPA (Sitlington et. al.,1992). It appears that many individuals with mild disabilities might be able to effect successful transition with a little help from their friends, or by using services which are available throughout the country. But, for the five percent employed in sheltered workshops and the 20% reported unemployed in the Iowa study, there seems to be a need for other answers.

"New wine:" Change and innovation in rural sheltered workshops

Community sheltered workshops in rural areas which have operated for more than twenty years have changed, they are now more likely to resemble a small business than a rehabilitation facility. Their mission and goals have, by and large, remained the same and, in many cases, their employees/clients have not changed, but the economy is very different. In the early 1970's almost 30% of all jobs were in manufacturing; consequently, much of the work in sheltered workshops was subcontracted from manufacturers. The late 1980's saw less than 20% of all jobs in manufacturing with over a million employees lost to automation or other technological advances - the large employment gains were found in service industries. A survey conducted in 1980 of the activities of 3,500 facilities (with a return rate of 737 or 48%) indicated that assembling electrical/electronic products was done more than any other job, while hardware assembly, pen/pencil assembly and reworking or building wooden products (e.g., pallets) made up six of the next highest nine. Many facilities were also involved in service contracts, the top five were:

collating, mailing, packaging, labeling, and maid/janitorial (Walls, Haught & Crist,1982). In these same sheltered workshops a decade later one is not apt to find many power tools for building wooden products or heat sealers for packaging subcontracted products. Instead, one will probably see much service related work, many prime contracts (manufactured products), and various services including case manadement and supported employment.

Many of the employees/clients of todays workshops transitioned from school without the benefits of a free and appropriate education (under PL-94-142) and program options such as vocational education. A follow-up survey done in Colorado of 76 workers may be indicative of current sheltered workshop employees. These workers average age was 35 years (62% between 19 and 25), 75% of them were individuals with mental retardation, over 60% had had no contact with Vocational Rehabilitation, 64% were employed full-time in a workshop, 28% were in supported employment, and 8% were competitively employed on a full-time basis (Sands, Kozleski & Goodwin, 1992). Although the numbers reported above in supported employment are somewhat higher than the national study previously cited (Shalock et. al. 1989), the numbers of individuals in competitive employment and, particularly, in workshops are similar. Those who have been employees/clients in workshops may have seen their wages change considerably over the last decade. Several studies on workshop earnings are cited by Kiernan and his colleagues: in 1981, for example, individuals with mental retardation averaged $417 per year, while a 1986 study reported average yearly earnings at $1,635 or about 1/3 of the prevailing minimum wage (Kiernan et. al., 1989). Recent reports from sheltered workshops in the author's state of residence indicate a range of average yearly earnings from a low of about $4,000 to a high of about $10,000. These wage increases could probably not have been possible without good business management and the ability to (re)train existing employees for new skills.

Other examples of how community sheltered workshops in rural areas have become well managed businesses and innovators can be drawn from all over the United States, but only information and illustrations from one rural southeastern state, the author's state of residence, will be used. Demographic data indicate that the State has one of the highest unemployment rates in the nation, one of the highest rates of health problems, and about 1% of the population applies annualy for disability. There are 29 workshops serving over 2,000 individuals (about .008% of the total population) or about 70 per workshop. These shops had $5.25 million in recently reported annual sales of goods and services to the State and placed 8% of their employees/clients in competitive employment. Only 13% (about $1.7 million) of their budgets come from State dollars, leaving 87% to be raised by contracts, sales and services. An example of a recent contract was one negotiated by the Rehabilitation Service Office with the State Department of Transportation to have the workshops provide maintenance in all rest areas of the State's interstate highway system. Product manufacture and sales examples include: one workshop which makes toys and sells them nationwide through a catalogue, another which has a growing business in silk screening "T" and sweat shirts, and one which manufactures and markets hammocks. In the service area, in addition to maintenance type contracts and food sales, one workshop has recently initiated a service to pick up, remanufacture, and deliver laser printer cartridges to regional businesses on a one day turnaround. Improved services to employees/clients are also being addressed through the establishment of pilot case management programs in several workshops and cooperative training of staff to provide increased supported employment programs. In order to keep abreast of activities, directors attend monthly regional planning meetings where ideas are exchanged and potential problems are discussed.

Rural community or regional sheltered workshops in any part of the country can be evaluated to ascertain if they are offering a wide range of services for all individuals with disabilities. Three major areas should be evaluated: the workshop as a business, service to potential employers, and service to employees/clients. The following Table is offered as an example and can be used as a check list to assess workshops in your locale.

Table II
Community Sheltered Workshop Checklist

I. Business Activities

A. Administration - 1.Experience of Admns. 2. Numbers sufficient to manage size of facility (include budget size and number of employees and staff).

B. Accounting/ Budget - 1. Experience of Budget Admn. 2. Ratio of staff to employee salaries. 3. Sources of income. 4. Production and operating costs.

C. Contract procurement and bidding - 1. Experience of Admn. 2. Number and vatiety of contracts. 3. Contracts match employee skills. 4. Wage setting process.

D. Employee Supervision/Training - 1. Experience of Supervisors. 2. Employee-job match. 3. Work-site accomodations. 4. Other on-site training opportunities used (e.g., facility maintenance, food services, shipping and receiving, office work).

E. Community Relations - 1. Board of Directors (Active, represent cross section of community). 2. Volunteers - Coordinator to solicit and offer orientation and training.

II. Service to potential employers

A. Supported employment - 1. Experiences of job procurers and coaches. 2. Knowledge of employers' business. 3. Work-site accomodations. 4. Employer appreciation activities.

B. Consultation activities -1. Information provided on Tax Incentives, Americans with Disabilities Act provisions etc. 2. Facility open house/career days.

C. Contracts - Examples of previous contracts. Also refer to C. (above).

III. Service to employees/clients

1. Facility orientation 2. Evaluation 3. Case Management and counseling
4. Day Treatment (incl. daily living, social recreational skills, and related services).
5. Employment and work adjustment training 6. Job/Career exploration
7. Supported employment/JTPA (hours working) 8. Networking
9. Job placement 10. Transportation
11. Benefits (incl. retirement plan) 12. Adult education programs

The preceeding Table does not offer suggestions for staff numbers or ratios, as each facility is unique in employees, staff, and administration. A good barometer to begin an assessment is to look at the number of hours employees/clients work and their wages including those on-site and in supported employment or JTPA programs. Supported employment regulations permit employment for less than twenty hours a week and some employees may be working on and off-site. Many workshops operate on thirty to thirty five hour weeks. A second good measure, as Table II (I. D. 4.) illustrates, is to check if the workshop, as a business, is utilizing all aspects of its own operations to offer employees job exploration and training experiences. A final, very revealing indicator, is to ask a number of people in your area (particularly people in business and industry) if they are familiar with the sheltered workshop. The results of this straw poll may tell you more than any other type of assessment.

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APPENDIX A:
PARENT/STUDENT CHECKLIST FOR TRANSITION PLANNING AREAS

This checklist can be used to insure that key areas are covered during meetings with professionals.

Financial/Income
___ Earned income
___ Insurance (life, annuities)
___ Supplemental Security Income (SSI)
___ Public assistance
___ Unearned income (gifts/dividends)
___ Food stamps
___ Social Security Benefits

Vocational Training/Placement Postsecondary Education
___ On The Job Training (OJT)
___ Community college/universities
___ Vocational/technical centers
___ Competitive employment
___ Supported work models
___ Rehabilitation facilities
___ Joint Training Partnership Act (JTPA)

Living Arrangements
___ With family
___ Independent living (own house/apartment)
___ Group home
___ Share living (roommate)
___ Other

Personal Management
___ Household management
___ Social skills
___ Parenting skills
___ Personal care services
___ Money management
___ Hygiene skills
___ Personal counseling/therapy,
Behavioral. Occupational. Vision.
Physical. Drug/Alcohol Abuse.
Speech/Language/Hearing. Family
Planning/Sex Education

Leisure/Recreation
___ Specialized recreation/social activities
(Special Olympics)
___ Community Center programs
___ Parks and recreation programs
___ Religious organizations
___ Sports or social clubs (YMCA, Scouts, health club)
___ Community colleges (craft classes, art, music)

Transportation
___ Independent (own car, bike, etc.)
___ Specialized transportation (wheelchair van)
___ Transportation
___ Public transportation (bus, taxi)
___ Specialized equipment (electric wheel chair)

Advocacy/Legal Services
___ Guardianship
___ Wills/trusts
___ Conservatorship
___ Other

Medical Services/Resources
___ Financial Resources
Group policy available, Individual policy,
Medicaid, Other
___ Medical services
General medical services
Medication supervision
Dental care
___ Medical/Accident Insurance

Personal/Family Relationships
___ Counseling: Genetic, Family, Individual,
Marriage, Crisis
___ Respite Care
___ Religious affiliations
___ Health Aide/Home Attendant
___ Support group

Adapted from:
Lambroua, J., Louder, M., Leslie, J., Jensen, L., Heidelberger, J., & Zeller, D. (1986). Transition! School to community: a guide for transition planning. Boise, ID: Idaho Department of Education, pp. 72-73.

APPENDIX B:
PARENT QUESTIONNAIRE

The following questions will help you think about the services you son or daughter will need after leaving the public schools. Your answers to these questions will help school staff determine how to assist you in planning and locating services for your son or daughter.

1. Your child's

Age:____ Grade:____ Graduation Date (if known):__________

2. What are your current post school plans for your son or daughter? Check the appropriate spaces.

Residential (where he/she will live):
live at home ____
apartment with support ____
group home ____
independent ____
other (specify) ______________________________

Vocational (what type of work: where):
no plans ____
sheltered workshop ____
community: sheltered ____
community: competitive ____
further training (specific type) ____
transportation assistance ____

3. What post school placements/services may be needed by your son or daughter?

Community colleges ____
Vocational technical schools ____
Private employment agencies ____
Employment security ____
Department of Health & Welfare ____
Department of Vocational Rehabilitation (DVR) ____
Developmental Disabilities Council ____
Social Security Administration (SSA) ____
United Cerebral Palsy ____
Other (Specify) ______________________________

4. Will your son or daughter require support in independent living?

Skills training ______
Emotional support ______
Financial support ______

5. Will your son or daughter require assistance in the areas of leisure/recreation

Locating appropriate programs ______
Transportation ______
Emotional support ______

6. What social/legal services will your son or daughter require?

Guardianship ______
Sexual awareness ______
Taking care of self ______
Verbal or physical abuse by others ______

7. What could the school district staff do to assist you in planning for your son
daughter's post school needs?

____

____

____

Source:
Lambrou, J., Louder, M., Leslie, J., Jensen, L., Heidelberger, J., & Zeiler, D. (1986)
Transition! School to community: A guide for transition planning. Boise, ID:
Idaho Department of Education, pp. 76-78.

PARENT CONNECTION PROJECT

Flint Hills Special Education Cooperative
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THE NEED:

Parents have a special relationship with their child throughout life. It has been likened to a marathon - a lifetime responsibility which does not begin or end with the formal educational process. Their stake in their child's development is full of emotion and dreams. Yet, many times they perceive educators presenting short-term unreachable challenges for their child, representing a system that often interferes with their lives and does not prepare them for the ongoing responsibilities of caring for their child.

Parent's perceptions very likely reflect their own experiences in school and society. Their understanding of the educational services offered and their support and involvement will be critical for the students to receive maximum benefits from these services. An optimum time for beginning to prepare parents for this marathon is at their first contact with educational and related service providers.

Partnerships where a family-school team fosters greater awareness of exceptionalities, the worth of each individual, and the potential of each student as a contributing citizen are needed. Partnerships that enhance the worth and value of parents are needed so parents can become valued contributing members of the team as they plan for their children's development, schooling and transition to becoming productive citizens.

The Flint Hills Special Education Cooperative encompasses 7 school districts and 38 public schools in a rural area. The schools are mainly community schools. While a few students attend self-contained classes in another school, most students in special programs remain in their local school. Currently, over 1100 students are receiving special education. Each community and family has unigue needs and they are separated by those needs as well as by geographical distance.

THE GOAL:

The Parent Connection Project was established to encourage more communication and partnerships between the school and the family, and to assist these families to meet the needs of children who have been identified as needing special education services. This project links parents with service providers and parents with parents, empowering parents to be a leading force in meeting the needs of their child.

PROJECT ACTIVITIES:

Parents of students in special education are employed as paraprofessionals in their home school district. These paraprofessionals act as mentors to parents of students who have been newly identified as needing special services. They offer peer support, assistance in understanding the IEP process and information on resources.

Our first activity was to **conduct a survey of the parents to assess their needs** for services and/or resources, their opinion of the time and quality of their child's special education experience, and their interest in involvement in school programs. The surveys were sent home with the student by the classroom teacher. Forty-three percent of the surveys were completed and returned, with many parents adding comments and questions. Positive comments were passed on to the child's teacher, questions and complaints were directed to the appropriate person and each one was answered. The results of the survey were used in planning services to children and families and will continue to be used in that way.

Representatives of community agencies and parents of students from the various school districts were recruited as members of the Interagency Coordinating Council. The Council acts as a major planning team, providing leadership to all project activities. This group works to identify community needs, set action plans and, together with the Parent Connection Project staff, works toward filling gaps in services to children and families.

The #1 need identified by both the parent questionnaire and the Coordinating Council was the need for "information for parents and the community". We engaged in various activities to fill this need including the following;

a. Staff members prepared a "**Parent Packet**" which includes information for parents on the laws governing special education, parents rights, the referral and IEP process and suggestions to help parents to be more involved in decisions made about their child.

b. Staff members compiled information for a **"Resource Guide for Parents of Students in Special Education".** This guide includes area resources as well as state and national resources.

c. A **newsletter** is distributed quarterly to parents and staff. This newsletter is designed to keep parents informed of resources and services, parent workshops, support groups, and family events.

Parent support groups have been established which cover most of the major attendance areas. We provide child care during the time of the group. We also provide informational speakers, literature and video tapes upon request of the group. Parents use these groups to develop support networks, to increase their knowledge of programs and to address common concerns.

A pilot **Classroom Helper Program** was developed during the 1992-1993 school year. The program was evaluated at the end of the year and suggestions were made for improving the process. This year the program has been expanded to include schools in all of the 7 school districts.

Mentor Program - When a child is identified as needing special education services, the school psychologist refers the family to the Parent Connection Project. A parent paraprofessional contacts the parent and offers to meet with them at a time and place that fits with their schedule. The paraprofessional brings with them the Parent Packet and Resource Guide, and offers the parent the support of one who has "been there".

The Project also receives referrals from school principals, teachers, and nurses on family issues which affect the child's ability to learn. Depending upon the issues involved, the Coordinator/School Social Worker may provide services or coordinate services with the parent paraprofessional.

We are in the second year of our project and are now in a position where we feel we can be of real service to families and at the same time relieve some of the burden from other school personnel. Enclosed you will find an informational sheet listing some of the ways we can be helpful to families. We do not have a magic wand to hand these services to families, but we do have information and resources to help parents in their efforts to do their best for their families.

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USING MULTICULTURAL EDUCATION TO ENHANCE THE SELF WORTH OF RURAL AT-RISK STUDENTS

INTRODUCTION

In 1979, NCATE added as a criterion for pre-service teachers that they be able to competently function in multicultural classrooms. If we as teacher educators are to address this criterion, we must assist our college and university students and their public and private school pupils to value students from culturally diverse backgrounds while learning to appreciate the larger human heritage.

The authors of this paper suggest that one approach to this challenge is to use multicultural materials from an integrated Social Studies and Language Arts curriculum to enhance the self worth of rural at-risk students. The premise is that the use of such a model will strengthen the positive correlation between self concept and school achievement, thus reducing the at-risk factors of these students. The remainder of this paper will describe theoretical and implementation elements of this approach.

SELF CONCEPT THEORY

Interest in the self has been evident in American psychology since the beginning of the twentieth century. Even so, it has been the behavior-oriented psychologists who have dominated American psychology in this century. An understanding of this history is of importance in that psychological theories have always had a strong influence on education in our country. The authors will very briefly highlight some of the more recent theoretical tenets which support the notions described in this paper.

Carl Rogers (1969) was an eloquent voice, speaking to the self as the central aspect of personality. He, along with Abraham Maslow (1954), wrote about the tendency toward self-actualization and growth when nurtured by the environment. They, with Gordon

Allport (1955), described all of life as the art of becoming, the movement towards self-actualization.

The writing of Combs and Snygg, in their 1949 book, *Individual Behavior* (2nd ed. 1959), had a major influence upon education as well as psychology. This work is used as the foundation for developing an understanding of the importance of the self, and self concept in the learning process. Since 1960, a large number of research studies into the relationship between the self concept and academic achievement have been conducted. An excellent overview of many of these studies can be found in William Purkey's 1970 book, *Self concept and school achievement*. In reviewing any study of the relationship between self concept and school achievement we should remain alert to Purkey's reminder that:

> Although the data do not provide clear-cut evidence about which comes first - a positive self concept or scholastic success, a negative self concept or scholastic failure - it does stress a strong reciprocal relationship and gives us reason to assume that enhancing the self concept is a vital influence in improving academic performance. (p. 27)

With this background in mind, the question of how we might incorporate multicultural education with the enhancement of self worth presents itself. According to Ramsey et al, (1989), the purposes of the multicultural approach were:

> ...to sensitize all individuals toward ethnic and racial differences, and to increase individual awareness of cultural traditions and sociological experiences. It was also to help all individuals understand their race and culture, including language and socialization experiences, had value, and could and should exist on a coequal basis with mainstream American values and experiences. (pp. 8,9)

The emphasis is upon the individual, the self. It is therefore possible to use multicultural materials to foster the development of a positive self concept which will, in turn, promote school achievement. Specific techniques and activities for working with teachers in training and for working with pupils in public school classrooms will be described in a later section of this paper.

CHARACTERISTICS OF AT-RISK RURAL STUDENTS

Regardless of one's race, gender, or culture, there are certain basic factors that are instrumental in producing the highly at-risk class of students. Probably the most common one, and most certainly the one with the greatest far reaching effects, is simply being poor and the resulting socioeconomic class in which one is placed. It is well documented that low socioeconomic levels are closely related to poor academic achievement (Chall and Curtis, 1991), and, in general, have been fairly good predictors of student achievement (Ornstein and Levine, 1989).

Contrary to widely held beliefs, poverty is not limited to the inner cities nor does it follow racial boundaries. The majority of poor people still live in small towns and rural America (Reed and Saulter, 1990). And typically, rural areas have 30% of the farm population and 24% of the nonfarm population living in poverty (Rodgers and Burge, 1982). Thus the population of rural at-risk students is extremely high, with the majority of unserved and underserved children living in these areas (Helge, 1988). Without question, poverty and low status have affected the achievement of many rural students (DeYoung, 1987).

The home life of the student is another important factor and it is often related to poverty and socioeconomic class. If the family does not have an educational background or does not support education, the student has a greater chance of dropping out (Coleman, 1988.). In general, students with poor or no family relationships and little or no parental involvement in their education are more at-risk (Bull, et al, 1992). Clearly, the more dysfunctional the family becomes, regardless of the cause, the greater the student becomes at-risk.

Problems at school are yet another multi-faceted factor that is characteristic of the at-risk student and often leads to drop-out. Problems such as retention, conflict, failing too many classes, competency tests and the school's lack of tolerance for student diversity in background have been cited by Bull (Bull, et al, 1992). Other studies have found that many of the problems are created by the schools. Grossman (1991) cites numerous examples indicating working class students (lower socioeconomic) receive unfair treatment in school that can create problems for those students. Interestingly, most of the teachers were not aware of their biases.

Students who are members of minority populations have to deal with the above factors as well as ones that are unique to them as minorities. They may look different due to racial or ethnic features and there is evidence that minority students do not perform or behave in the classroom in the same manner as do their Anglo peers (Hale-Benson, 1986). They may have to adjust to cultural values, language, or teaching styles that are totally alien to them, but must continue to function in their own cultures outside school. They must also deal with the problem of prejudice. This may be racial, cultural, social., or economic, and can take many forms, both subtle and overt. It may well take the form of being academically suspect because as a group, minorities will not achieve at the level of their main-stream peers. As a result, they may be labeled low achievers and will not be academically challenged and will fall farther behind and become more at-risk (Ornstein and Levine, 1989).

Thus minorities become low achievers and highly at-risk often as a result of the educational system itself. Yet teachers and administrators are often not aware of what they are doing to these students and the students' self-esteem, nor are they aware of the rich cultural heritage the students possess.

But one does not have to look different physically in order to receive the same treatment. Since socioeconomic class is a fairly good predictor of achievement in school, then underclass whites as a group are low achievers, too. And they are also minorities. Ornstein and Levine (1989) stated "...their problems are often ignored because they are not well organized as a group and are not deemed newsworthy by the media."

In addressing the highly at-risk multicultural rural population, one must consider the real meaning of multiculture. More often than not, it is thought of in terms of a global world and the exotic differences among cultures, or, more commonly in educational textbooks, as related to minority groups, usually blacks and Hispanics, with only a passing reference to Native Americans and other minorities. Usually it is the poor inner city population that is stressed.

Multiculturalism goes far beyond this. In rural areas there are many minorities that have been overlooked. When one considers not only race and ethnic background, but includes socioeconomic factors, religion, and specific and unique cultures, we become aware of many groups that have not been properly addressed.

Specifically, certain rural populations in the Southeast have not received due recognition, yet educators must deal with them and their unique needs on a daily basis. Far too often these students aren't only highly at-risk academically, but are also highly at-risk as productive members of society.

The multicultural education approach provides the best opportunity to reach a diverse population (Cottrol, 1990). Understanding and appreciating other cultures is the very foundation of multiculture education, yet there is disagreement over how it should be handled. Many believe the goals of the schools should be to teach and preserve the separate identities of the racial and ethnic cultures and not teach a common American culture. Some go so far as to teach contempt for everything white and European (Ravitch, 1991).

Probably the majority of educators believe we should teach our common culture, but include the contributions of other cultures. In a survey done by the New York United Teachers/AFT, eighty-eight per cent believed we should teach a common heritage (1992). Blacks and Hispanics showed the strongest preference with 89% and 87%. Only 70% of the whites supported this position. In the same survey, the participants were asked which was more important, teaching our common heritage, or teaching student ethnicity. Eleven percent favored the distinct ethnic groups, 49% the common heritage, and 40% felt both were equally important. These findings strongly support a balanced curriculum.

The authors of this paper believe the most positive approach to using multicultural education is to teach a true common culture curriculum that includes the contributions of minorities and other cultures, with special attention being paid to those in the student population. In so doing, an understanding, appreciation, and respect for other cultures becomes a major goal.

Minority students can develop a better understanding of their own culture, take pride in their heritage, and become more positive in their self-esteem. By sharing customs, beliefs, etc., students learn of their likenesses and differences. They also learn of their commonalities and that all cultures are important and many have contributed heavily to our American culture.

IMPLEMENTATION OF THE MODEL

In using this model teachers may have to change their teaching styles. It calls for more interaction among the students and it is more global than traditional pedagogy. Rural students are global learners who do not seek individual recognition and they do not like individual competition (Potterfield and Pace, 1992). They also like information given to them orally. Clearly they are not at home in the typical urban or urban influenced classroom, so it is imperative that the teachers adapt their teaching styles to the students' needs.

When properly done, the cooperative learning approach is a natural for rural students. It allows for interaction and hands-on activities in a group setting. Work is within the group and it is the group that receives the recognition. Working together for a common goal brings the students together in a different manner than does individual competition,. With a caring teacher and appropriate learning activities, multicultural education can go a long way toward addressing the needs of at-risk rural students. It will also enhance the learning of the other students as well as produce citizens who are aware of the worth of each individual in our society.

There is also a need for an integrated approach to teaching. Content information does not exist in a vacuum. There is correlation between and among information from the various fields of knowledge. If any content information is to become relevant to the student, it must be presented in a manner which will inspire the student to personalize and apply it to his daily life.

Consider, for example, the language arts to be content void, but the primary tools of communication ; reading, writing, speaking, listening, thinking, and visioning. From this perspective, social studies becomes the content area and language arts the vehicle for an integrated approach to the teaching and learning processes.

In dealing with specific cultures, the teacher must avoid ethnocentrism and recognize that each culture is an entity that has an intrinsic value of its own.. Understanding this, the teacher can now draw from the various cultures as the basis for a multicultural approach to integrated instruction.

Special attention must be given to the individual cultures of the area. Oftentimes this will include cultures so specific and unique that their problems may not have been addressed outside the immediate area, and the students who are members may well be among the highly at-risk population. The Travelers of Edgefield and Aiken Counties in South Carolina are excellent examples of this phenomenon.

There will be other groups who are also definitely minorities, but who are not thought of as such. These may be large or small groups, almost always white, and possess common factors - socioeconomic class being the most common. Numerous examples exist, but the best known one would be the textile or mill village resident of the southeast. A similar example would be that of the poor, rural isolate.

Rural blacks, while always identified as minorities because they are black, are uniquely different from urban blacks. They need to be dealt with as members of their own culture. And there are different rural black cultures. All are rich and unique in their heritage and they have made major contributions to the overall American culture. Perhaps the most unique culture that falls within this category is that of the Gullahs of the sea islands of South Carolina.

The native American population is also a rural minority. The various cultures represented in the southeast, both reservation and non-reservation, vary greatly from the Indian stereotype portrayed in popular literature, but they share the common denominator in that they are all highly at-risk.

There are also migrant workers who have children attending rural schools. These students may be white, black, or hispanic, and they may be citizens or non-US citizens. They are members of the lowest socioeconomic class and are among the highest at-risk population, but they have much to offer to a multicultural approach to education when their cultures and experiences are shared, respected, and appreciated.

All of the above needs of rural, at-risk students can be addressed through an integrated curriculum model. Unit teaching, incorporating the use of cooperative learning groups, a positive classroom climate based upon the development of trust between teachers and students, and an emphasis upon the unconditional acceptance of each individual and his/her culture are essential elements of the proposed model. . This viable model recognizes the essence and validity of developmental learning. The development of appropriate, functional language skills related to real life, as well as sufficient communication skills to maintain a role as an active participant in the educational processes of the school will empower the student. This empowerment, in turn, is a major contributor to the development of a positive self-concept, enabling the student to combat the sense of powerlessness which has long been acknowledged as a major cause for dropping out of school.

Within the parameters of this unit teaching model, content materials from both the social studies curriculum and the language arts curriculum will be blended. Children's and adolescent literature will be used as the natural bridge between the two curriculums. Thus the social studies content and the language arts conduit are inextricably merged as the basic component of the model.

CONCLUSIONS

Much has been written about multicultural education in teacher training programs and its implementation in public school classrooms. Nevertheless, we cannot lay claim to successful outcomes in either arena. Peter Scales (1992), has shared some sobering data captured through questionnaires collected from 439 middle grades teachers, deans, and chief state school officers. This study, **Windows of opportunity: Improving middle grades teacher preparation,** was conducted by the Center for Early Adolescence, School of Medicine, located on the Chapel Hill campus of the University of North Carolina. This group of educators reported that they found their teacher preparation had prepared them "inadequately" or "poorly" for several areas in classroom teaching. As in previous studies completed by the center, this sample rated cultural and language diversity as the area in which they were least adequately prepared. They also reported that the knowledge of how to aid young adolescents in managing their social and emotional development and the ability to reflect these characteristics in their teaching were among the least adequately covered aspects of their preparation. This information, gathered on the heels of the many multicultural education models implemented during the 1980's, spotlights the lack of success accruing from these approaches as taught in teacher education programs.

Gezi (1981) summarized the five major approaches to multicultural education as:

> 1.) Education for the culturally different, with a focus on helping to equalize educational opportunities for such students
> 2.) Education about cultural differences, with an aim to cultural understanding
> 3.) Education to preserve cultural pluralism
> 4.) Education to help children function in two cultures
> 5.) Education to develop competencies in multiple systems. (p. 5)

Each of these separate models speaks to the individual. Instead of delivering each model separately, these authors suggest that we speak to all of these needs through a unified approach focusing upon the individual, the self. It is the belief of these authors that the enhancement of self worth of rural at-risk students through the use of the above described multicultural education model is a viable approach to meeting the needs of these same students.

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Preparing Rural Special Educators Using Distance Learning Technology: Innovative Model

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All over the country educational administrators from elementary to post-elementary levels are being faced with demands to provide educational equity to students regardless of the students' location. Administrators in increasing numbers are seeking new ways to effectively deliver classes to students and distance learning has become an attractive solution. (Johnstone, 1991)

Introduction

One of the things we value in educators in a rural setting is a commitment to place. Being established in the community and feeling a connection provides a sense of continuity and strength to the school setting. This is true of all educators but often is more important in Special Education, where teachers are dealing with situations that extend beyond the school and impact the life of the student both in and out of school. Our traditional model for educating and upgrading teaching skills, works in direct opposition to the connection with community. We demand that individuals who wish to broaden their skills must leave their community, move to another community, and receive their training and apply what is learned elsewhere. The goal of the project Preparing Rural Special Educators Using Distance Learning Technology is to enhance the educational opportunities for both teachers and students by offering course work, and a degree program, in an outreach format. Rather than leaving the community, this project forges even tighter bonds between teacher and local schools through applied educational opportunities.

Background

Testifying before the Senate Subcommittee on the Handicapped and the House Subcommittee on Select Education, Dr. William Carriker noted, "According to figures released by the U.S. Department of Education, the number of special education teachers that are needed has been steadily increasing over the last decade with the shortage growing by more than 10,000 between 1984 and 1986." Furthermore, the National Center for Education Statistics reports a 35% decline in special educators graduating from personnel preparation programs in the decade just ending. (Reprinted from News & Notes, 1989.) Rural schools experience severe shortages and high turnover rates in special education and have historically faced a persistent challenge in providing for the needs of those students requiring specialized services (Theobald, 1991). A summary of these problems is provided by Helge (1984) as a result of a survey of over 200 special education administrators from rural LEA's in all 50 states. Respondents reported that difficulties recruiting and retaining qualified staff were the two most serious problems following funding inadequacies. Sixty-six percent said they had difficulties recruiting staff while only 17% said they had an adequate number of personnel. Most (92%) of the respondents said that emergency certification was used frequently. Given that many rural special education teachers have little of no training in special education and/or rural life, it is little wonder that national attrition rates of 30% to 50% are the norm in rural districts.

It is clear from all available data, therefore, that there is a critical shortage of fully certified special education teachers. This shortage is most acute in rural areas, both nationally and in Maine. The rural regions of Maine are also where the greatest number of minority children with disabilities may be found. Special education training programs in Maine are not providing the necessary supply of teachers to Maine schools to meet the demand for special education services, a trend that is true nationwide. And, even when students do receive certification in Special Education, there is little promise that they will locate in the rural regions of the state by choice. Marrs (1984) found that prospective rural special educators generally fall into three categories: (a) Individuals who have grown up in rural communities and are interested in working in special education, (b) Individuals who are place-bound in rural areas and are forced into teaching special education by circumstances, and (c) Individuals who accept positions in rural areas knowing nothing about ruralness. A further study by Helge and Marrs (1982) found that special educators who have grown up in rural communities, those in the first group, are most likely to remain in rural districts since they have goals, mores, expectations, and lifestyles similar to the families they serve. Special needs students with disabilities have suffered severely from this shortage of special educators, as have school personnel who are struggling to do the best they can under adverse circumstances. High attrition rates in the special education staff inhibit the development of stable connections among school staff members and between staff members and parents. In addition, the high rate of turnover within a program is seen by personnel directors as disruptive to special education program continuity and planning. (Theobald, 1991)

Maine's rural regions mirror rural regions nationwide, often being extremely poor and isolated by geographic conditions that make travel slow, even in good weather. These conditions, combined with a strong sense of community and the inability to leave work and family, keep many of Maine's rural inhabitants from participating in higher education. Therefore, if Maine, and other states, are to have special educators fully prepared to teach in rural areas, training programs will have to make educational opportunities available locally. Indeed, research has shown that hiring regular education teachers already in the community and providing resources to help them obtain special education certification, as well as encouraging classified staff members who are already serving handicapped children to become certified in the field is an extremely successful recruitment and retention tool. (Theobald, 1991)

Project Design

The goal of the Rural Special Educator Project is to make special education training at the baccalaureate degree level available and accessible to persons who are currently indigenous to and/or employed in rural Maine. Aside from the primary goal of increasing the number of fully qualified special education teachers; the project will develop materials specifically designed for use in distance learning and pilot a model for making quality practical experiences available in remote settings. Course work offered within the project is based on the curriculum of the Special Education Degree at the University of Maine at Farmington. The sequence of courses to be offered is designed to meet the standards for certification within the state of Maine. Students who currently hold a baccalaureate degree in any field can seek transcript analysis from the State Division of Certification and then take courses that are offered under the auricles of the Rural Special Educator Project. Since the primary target population for these courses are transitionally and conditionally certified teachers, teachers who are currently working in classrooms across the state, classes will require practical classroom application of theories discussed. Most courses will be offered over the Interactive Television System (The Education Network of Maine) which is a two-way audio, one-way video system that broadcasts to approximately ninety sites throughout the state. Students attend classes, much in the same way they would on a campus, and participate in lectures, discussions and activities both within their sites and using a telephone conference system.

Courses will be offered during times that best suit working professionals in education: after school and in the evening hours. The grant also permits the exploration of other learning structures including prerecorded video classes with follow-up discussions, on-campus intensive workshops, audio instruction and computer-based instruction. As the project progresses we hope to identify the best delivery method for each course required for certification.

The second target population for the grant is individuals who are educational technicians working in the schools and would like to upgrade their skills and obtain their baccalaureate degree. The grant was written to accommodate thirty-five students and allow them the time to complete their degree requirements. These students will take the same courses as those that are offered conditionally and transitionally certified teachers, and will be expected to apply theories within their school setting. In order to successfully do this, however, it is necessary for these individuals to have the support of the schools in which they work. Therefore, application to the Rural Special Educator Project is based upon both the desire of the individual to complete this program and the willingness of the school to be supportive of their application. In addition to the completion of the courses required for certification, students who enter the baccalaureate degree program will be required to fulfill general education requirements and a concentration in one of several fields. Students will be supported in their efforts by the project staff, a faculty advisor and a teacher/mentor from their local school. Since the project is a four-year "experiment" it will be essential that all students make continued progress in their program if they hope to complete the degree in a timely fashion. The identification of a teacher/mentor in the school is a key component to the success of the project. Individuals interested in this role will be offered the opportunity to participate in a training program. This program will provide them with the tools for supervision of the practica as well as updating them on current issues in Special Education. By acting as a teacher/mentor, these individuals will add to their own knowledge base, earn necessary recertification credits, and assist in training new personnel in Special Education.

Replication

While our project depends partially upon utilization of the Interactive Television (ITV) system that is in place within the state, there are aspects of the design that are easily replicated without such a system. Additionally, many states with a large rural population have systems in place to offer education using distance technology but have not considered the option of offering a degree program and continuing teacher education using those systems. If the project meets with anticipated success it may be possible, in some places, to directly replicate project activities or to modify them to suit available technologies.

In the early stages of this project the response has been overwhelming. It is clear that we have identified a very real need within the education community. The following steps have been taken thus far in this project:

- An Advisory Board has been established which includes representatives from the education community, the state and the university. This group will assist in design and implementation of the project.

- A brochure has been designed and sent to a targeted mailing list that includes Education Technicians and Directors of Special Services throughout the state. Within a month of sending out this mailing we have received over two hundred inquires into various aspects of the project. Responses have come from every corner of the state of Maine and include both current teachers and educational technicians, individuals interested in pursuing a career change and individuals in related fields who might benefit from courses offered in various aspects of special education.

- * An admissions packet has been designed and returned to interested students and the application process will continue through the spring.
- * Courses are being redesigned to better serve the non-traditional student working in distance sites. Course delivery will begin in the summer of 1993 and continue each semester through the life of the grant. It is anticipated that course offerings might continue after the completion of the grant since all materials and instructional design will be complete.
- * Course offerings over the Interactive Television System and on the University System campuses are being evaluated for transferability and advising purposes.
- * The teacher/mentor training program for the summer of 1993 is being designed to meet the dual goals of training in practicum supervision and information update.
- * Evaluation tools have been designed to examine the success of students in this type of learner setting. Pre- and post-course evaluations will be completed by students and faculty. On-going evaluation of baccalaureate candidates will be utilized for advising and course design purposes. We anticipate using the evaluation information to refine our efforts and to provide information to other institutions who wish to explore this avenue of program delivery.

Conclusion

Preparing Rural Special Educators Using Distance Learning Technology is still very much in the early design stages, but appears to already have found an enthusiastic and willing audience. We anticipate being able to provide on-going information about the design and implementation of this project, including course format and instructional materials. Overcoming the obstacles of distance and access and making special education training at the baccalaureate degree level available and accessible to people in rural Maine is a worthy goal. It is compatible with findings that almost all special educators hired by rural school districts are trained in-state (Theobald, 1991) and honors the goals and drive of the highly motivated student who is pursuing a course of study significant to a particular goal (Cookson, 1989). The project should also help to assure that the best possible education, in the most caring and least disruptive environment is available to rural children with disabilities.

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Transition Services for Rural Secondary Students with Developmental Disabilities: A Model for Employment

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Introduction

Employment is a vital aspect in the lives of most adults in our society, whether their work involves highly paid career specialization or entry level jobs. Employment offers an individual the opportunity to expand social contacts, contribute to society, and establish an identity through work.

Professionals, parents and local education agencies have realized that individuals with developmental disabilities can become vocationally competent when provided with systematic application of learning principles (Rusch & Phelps, 1987). During the past 15 years significant research has contributed to the vocational knowledge base that has in turn raised expectations for secondary students with respect to employment options (Wehman, 1988). Traditionally, students with developmental disabilities have participated in high school curricula with limited access to vocational educational programs. Recent studies have found that these same students have not acquired the vocational competencies necessary for acquiring jobs and find themselves unemployed and underemployed following graduation (Hasazi et al., 1985). Federal studies have found that disabled students who find jobs within 4 years of leaving high school usually obtain low-skilled, minimum-wage, part-time jobs. One half of students with emotional disabilities drop out of school prior to graduation and 35% of these students become involved with the criminal justice system (National Longitudinal Transition Study, 1990).

The focus for the remainder of this decade will be on community and educational integration. Federal legislation (P.L.101-476; 1990) calls for our nation to address the transition service needs of all students receiving special education. Successful transition planning from school to work within rural states will challenge the existing secondary curriculum to expand and include functional community-based programs that eliminate the disadvantages that rural regions face.

New York State recognizes that in order to prevent students with developmental disabilities from graduating without the necessary training in vocational competencies, schools must begin to address the transitional process from school to work. It requires careful planning and trained personnel from various service programs to coordinate the transition process while the student is still in school and to prepare them for realistic employment options in the community. In rural communities the task of locating jobs is compounded not only by the smaller job base, but also by the higher levels of unemployment experienced during times of national recession. Traditionally, jobs in the agricultural and service industries which are predominantly seen in rural areas, are often the first to experience significant layoffs. In light of this, collaboration between existing businesses and the school districts located in these rural areas need to develop a shared responsibility for creating alternative training programs. Within the rural farm country of the Genesee Valley, the unemployment rate has remained well above the national and state average (15% - 33%) in these depressed economic times. Successful transition services within rural school districts have developed programs by examining the local labor market, collaborative interagency agreements, and a strong partnership with parents, employers and outside agencies in order to facilitate the development of new job markets, while at the same time providing training sites for secondary students with developmental disabilities.

New York State Regulations:

The Board of Regents of New York State as a result of the federal amendments passed in 1990 developed an agreement between several agencies that were involved in the provision of transition services to individuals with disabilities. This agreement established the basic principles for implementation of these policies and how linkage shall be conducted with transition services. This agreement is also consistent with the State's New Compact for Learning that stipulates that transition programming involve comprehensive, coordinated educational services to prepare each student to participate within integrated settings for employment, postsecondary education, or community living (SED, 1992).

The Office of Vocational and Educational Services for Individuals with Disabilities (VESID) and The Office of Elementary, Middle and Secondary Education (EMS) will collaborate, and integrate resources to enable students with disabilities to successfully transition from school to adult life. The following is a list of established criteria and service provisions that will be implemented by each school district in New York.

1. Transition planning must begin by age 15. (This exceeds federal regulations which stipulate the age of 16).

2. Coordinated set of activities that: lead to a comprehensive coordinated plan; is part of the IEP; based on student's individual needs, preferences and interests; student is an active participant; parents, adult services providers, student, significant others and CSE must jointly consider total life needs; and identifies transition services which support needs in school and after child leaves school.
3. Outcome oriented: CSE must arrange educational services to assure students are prepared for role as successful members of adult community.
4. Interagency linkages: IDEA promotes shared programmatic and financial responsibility with other agencies. However the local educational agency has primary responsibility for transition activities (SED, 1992).

In addition to these specific provisions the State has also identified essential components that must be a part of transition services, and outcome areas that must be covered as part of the overall planning (transition team decisions). The essential components that must be addressed in the transition plan are employment, independent living and community integration. The outcome areas include, but are not limited to, recreation/leisure, legal/advocacy, financial/income, personal independence/residential, medical/health, employment, post-secondary/continuing education, transportation, and other support needs.

As each school district begins to implement these policies they will need to recognize local demographics and labor markets that affect the job availability and training that students receive as part of their transition plan. Teachers will also need to familiarize themselves with local business agencies and post secondary services in order to be active participants of the transition team and assist the student and their parents in this new planning process.

Rural Western New York and Transition:

In rural areas of Western New York that surround Genesee Valley and the Western regions of the Finger Lakes are several large wine and grape producing farms that provide grapes to the wineries. These agriculturally based regions provide several jobs for migrant and transient workers, along with seasonal work. However, these same communities have very small centralized school programs that share many resources and provide only limited educational programming at the elementary and secondary level.

Another factor that must be considered in this rural region is the fact that unemployment and underemployment for students with disabilities is usually higher than both the State and Federal labor statistics. In some regions unemployment has been has high as 33%. Therefore, the potential for training sites and stable businesses that are part of community linkage can and does suffer. The question many educators and community services have been asking is how to develop sufficient job opportunities for students to be competitive and successful after leaving school. Also, the traditional manual labor and service sector job opportunities that once were readily available to students with disabilities during school and upon graduation are now being sought after by other unemployed peers in the same community. It is an employer market that allows them to select the best candidates available.

However, with new agency linkage agreements, new incentives, tax breaks and other financial advantages for employers, it makes it possible to form partnerships within the community that benefit everyone involved in the transition process. The strength of secondary on the job training in the community has been found to be an essential component of transition programs in rural communities (Rojewski, 1989).

Transition model within a rural setting:

Based on other rural transition models we have designed a model that is community based and consumer oriented. The model involves five steps that use transition services as the focal point and provides outcomes for both the participating employer and student trainee.

The first step is Outreach or Linkage that involves identifying a range of businesses and employers that represent the job market of the rural community. The outreach takes two forms. First, the representation of employers on a Community Transition Team (CTT) provides necessary input from businesspeople regarding how to generate new jobs, recruit new job sites and improve existing markets by identifying and filling local employer needs. The second form of outreach of the CTT is to provide educational information to new members, give tours, and take part in recruitment of other businesses as training site participants. The Community Transition Team consist of State agencies such as VESID, social services, residential programs, the school district and other community representatives.

The second step Job Finding/Market Analysis, is directly related to the first step. With the CTT assisting in identifying, promoting and locating community employers to become involved in the training project the training project is also developing a composite of the local job force and labor needs. This information allows the school district and local VESID counselors to conduct assessments and compile portfolios of available jobs and training sites that the CTT can use to match employers with trainees. The job find also includes a detailed job analysis of minimum requirements and skills for each job. The ongoing market analysis provides the team with employment trends and can assist employers with labor shortages or other technical assistance.

The third step, On The Job Training, is designed for the student to receive real life experience with an employer who has agreed to participate as a training site. The training for the student depends on their individual needs, level of transition services identified by the CTT, and years prior to graduation. The training then can be tailored to each students specific needs and then matched to the job site that will work on specific goals (i.e., social/behavioral skills, job counseling, transportation, or job specific skills).

The fourth step is the Follow-up provided by CTT members. Follow-up involves how each training site and student are performing based on the transition plan developed. The team examines the implementation of services and integration of all aspects of the training. This step should be seen as seperate from step five (evaluation) in that follow-up is an ongoing process.

The fifth step is Evaluation of the training program. Evaluation occurs on several levels and involves both qualitative and quantitative information that allows the CTT to determine the programs ability to meet the goals of the project but also the goals of the employers, students, and community. Once the CTT completes their review the information is then used as part of the first step (Outreach) to improve the linkage between the community and school.

Summary:

Rural Genesee Valley has a very small labor market and limited employment opportunities for students with disabilities to access. However, with the new State regulations and agreements between service agencies and school districts, the need for improved linkage has created an opportunity to develop transition service models that build a partnership between the local business community, schools and state agencies to provide the rural labor force with skilled employees.

The model presented allows rural educators to initiate effective on the job training programs that meet the needs of students with disabilities while at the same time supporting the local business communities need for skilled workers.

The decade of the nineties will force educators to use fewer resources in order to accomplish a larger number of transition goals. This can only be achieved if educators continue to initiate and redesign the way they do business in the community.

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SECTION 504: GUIDELINES FOR EDUCATORS

> **No otherwise qualified individual with handicaps in the United States...shall, solely by reason of her/his handicap, be excluded from the participation in, be denied the benefits of, or be subjected to discrimination under any program or activity conducted by any Executive agency or by the United States Postal Service"(29 USC7 94)**

OVERVIEW

This short paragraph has far reaching implications for school districts. With it, Montana begins a manual written to provide technical assistance to districts in their efforts to comply with federal mandate. Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act was enacted in 1973. Its implementing federal regulations promulgated in 1977 are divided into six sections:

Subpart A	General Provisions
Subpart B	Employment Practices
Subpart C	Program Accessibility
Subpart D	**Preschool, Elementary, Secondary Education Requirement**
Subpart E	Postsecondary Education Requirement
Subpart F	Health, Welfare, Social Services

For many years, the main thrust of enforcement has been in the area of employment for individuals with disabilities. However, within the last several years, the Office for Civil Rights (OCR), charged with enforcement of Section 504, has become pro-active in the field of education of disabled individuals. Advocacy organizations have increasingly focused on Section 504 requirements to insure that the education system provides the full range of special accommodations and services necessary for individuals with disabilities to participate in and benefit from public education programs and activities. The manual published by Montana's Office Of Public Instruction (OPI) focuses upon the educational components of Section 504.

Section 504 is civil rights legislation. The statute prohibits discrimination against individuals with disabilities, including students, parents, and staff members, by school districts receiving federal financial assistance. All programs or activities of the school district are subject to Section 504 regulations. Section 504 is not itself a funding source, however school districts found to be out of compliance with this legislation are in danger of forfeiting any federal monies which they receive.

The educational regulations of Section 504 which mandate a Free And Appropriate Public Education (FAPE) include the following five components:

1. **Child-find;**
2. **Notification;**
3. **Evaluation;**
4. **Provision of appropriate services;**
5. **Procedural safeguards.**

Qualified individuals with disabilities in public schools are eligible to receive these services. Many school districts, however, remain unclear in their understanding of this powerful law and limited in their capacity to implement fully its requirements.

Any students who receive special education and related services under the Individuals With Disabilities Education Act qualify for Section 504 services. Students who qualify for Section 504 services, however, are not necessarily eligible under IDEA. Section 504 and its implementing regulation 34 CFR 104, while consistent with IDEA, are less specific than IDEA and more generally applicable. Section 504 defines a disability as **any physical or mental impairment substantially limiting one or more major life activities**. Any student with an impairment meeting this definition is protected against discrimination. Although not qualified for special education, the student may require a **modified program** within the confines of **regular education.**

By fulfilling responsibilities under IDEA, a district meets Section 504 regulations. To be in compliance, however, procedures need not be as detailed as outlined by the special education legislation. Section 504 evaluation and placement are determined by the type of disability believed to be present. Evaluation must be **sufficient to assess accurately and completely** the nature and extent of the disability and to recommend appropriate services. Determination of needed services must be made by a **group of persons knowledgeable about the student.** The group should review the nature of the disability, effects on the student's education, whether specialized services are needed, and what those services are. The group must **develop and implement a plan** for the delivery of necessary educational **modifications/accommodations to be made in the regular educational classroom**. Record of decisions about Section 504 eligibility and services must be kept in the student's file and **reviewed periodically**.

Parents play a role in the Section 504 process, however, as with all aspects of this legislation, not to the extent mandated by IDEA. Parents must be notified of identification, evaluation, and placement of the student. Parental permission is not required. Parents are entitled to an impartial due process hearing if they disagree with district decisions.

Section 504 is not the sole responsibility of special education. Rather, it is the **responsibility of the comprehensive general education system.** The Office Of Civil Rights (OCR), not the Office Of Special Education And Rehabilitation Services (OSERS) holds responsibility for monitoring compliance.

THE MANUAL

Montana's technical assistance manual, *Section 504: Guidelines For Educators*, consists of the following five sections:

1. Introduction To Section 504;
2. School District Responsibilities;
3. Eligibility Procedures For FAPE Under Section 504;
4. Questions Regarding Section 504 And Special Issues;
5. Definitions
6. Sample Forms For Section 504.

In addition, four appendices have been included. Appendix A holds copies of Section 504 and the 1990 amendments to this law. Appendix B contains memoranda clarifying differences between Section 504 and IDEA, drug/alcohol issues, and service to children with ADD/ADHD. Appendix C is a chart comparing IDEA, Section 504, and the Americans With Disabilities Act (ADA). The final appendix contains additional references.

Developed with field reviews by school administrators, educational attorneys, and parent advocates, the manual contains only information needed by schools for educational compliance. It has been formatted to be user friendly. Responsibilities of school personnel from district superintendent to classroom teacher are specified. Sample policy statements and forms are included to be adapted for individual district needs.

Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973 mandates equity in education for all students. Not discriminating against students with special educational needs demands restructuring education to fit the student, rather than changing the student to fit the school. This often overlooked or ignored law demands the attention of educators and creates limitless educational opportunities for every student.

Section 504
Technical Assistance Manual
Administrator Training

1.0 Overview of Sec 504
Legal Challenges in Education Reed Martin, J.D.
TAPE 12 "Section 504: Expanding Schools' Duties"

1.1 Background
1.2 Five Components

2.0 Description of Montana's Technical Assistance Manual
Section 504: Guidelines For Administrators

3.0 Section 504 Compliance Guide

3.1 School responsibilities
3.2 Sample policy statements
3.3 Sample forms

4.0 Comparison/Contrast Section 504 with IDEA

5.0 Application

5.1 Implementation status in home district
5.2 Provisions of immediate concern
5.3 Two-year plan for full compliance

HANDOUTS

1.0 Overview

Outline of TAPE 12
List of available legal tapes

2.0 Description

Manual (On display)

3.0 Compliance

Compliance Guide

4.0 Comparison/Contrast

Appendix C: Comparison IDEA/Sec 504/ADA

5.0 Application

IDEA/504 Flow Chart

OVERHEADS

1.0 Overview

FIGURE 1 -- Section 504 Impact on Student Population
FIGURE 2 -- Section 504 Who or How Far

2.0 Manual

(N/A)

3.0 Compliance

Compliance Guide

4.0 Comparison/Contrast

(N/A)

5.0 Application

Alternate Flow Charts

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A Day Late and a Dollar Short: A Survivalist's Approach for a Transdisciplinary-Transitional Curriculum that Affects Literacy for Rural Students Considered to be At Risk or Having Mild Disabilities

Introduction

Special education students of today have been eligible to benefit from provisions of EHA and IDEA throughout their school careers. These services, however, have not been enough to effectively aid students with disabilities in successfully transitioning into an independent and adult lifestyle (Gruennagen, 1991). One of the outcomes of transition planning has been the attention given to the future postsecondary needs of students with severe disabilities (ACRES, 1984; D'Alonzo, 1991; Dever, 1988, and Faivey, 1986), and while similar transitional needs of students with mild learning disabilities and/or considered at risk, have been addressed, it can be argued that their needs appear to have been disproportionately meet in respective thoroughness. It is an easy oversight for the transitional needs planning committees of students with mild disabilities' to apply less scrutiny, the assumption being that the students' transitional needs are being addressed within the context of their respective course work. Implicit in this line of thinking is that these students are capable of performaning independent adult-like tasks simply on their own. This approach disregards the permeating and often permanent effects of mild handicapping conditions, particularly to the generalizability of skills in non-supportive contexts.

Two exceptional goals of educational programs emerge as critical to meet the transitional needs of students with mild handicaps and/or considered at risk. One is the growing need for better use of existing resources which reflects the advice given by The American Council on Rural Special Education (1984) suggesting that resources could be identified more efficiently by following certain procedures. Included in these are: (a) the completion of a resource survey of all personnel listing skills and competencies that could be shared with others; (b) completion of a resource survey regarding potential sharing of parent skills and competencies; and

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[illegible] transdisciplinary teaming process, namely role release, where [illegible] team members release their particular knowledge and skills to other members who can then implement them. The amount of and type of release are determined by such factors as the student's needs, competencies of various team members, practical and logistical realities, and legal prohibitions (Werdin, C. & Mensing, A., 1988).

The second emergent goal is to equip individual students with the skills needed to make the transition from independence associated with status of students to the independence associated with the status as adults beyond the tacit, assumed, or cursory approach, i.e., these students will be literate in everyday life activities in various contexts. Williams and Snipper (1990) suggest that the closed-systems status of literacy in our schools allows teachers to help students learn to read but not to become literate. They believe literate behavior is linked to "making texts, activities, instruction personally meaningful," which necessitates a pedagogy of inclusion, not exclusion.

The key in the program planning process for transitioning these students is identifying both faculty and community skills that can be shared as well as current and future environments of the student and the skills he or she needs to participate as independently as possible in those environments. Werdin & Mensing (1988) advance the most important qualities of the student's program are: integration/inclusion (normalization), school instruction, community/career referenced goals and instruction, orientation toward future enviroments, careers, and lifestyles, parent and community involvement, comprehensiveness, and effectiveness.

Several content and programming guideposts are identified in literature including:

1. School program climate, i.e., positive atmosphere and supportive peer culture (Eaton, 1984; Butler-Nalin & Padilla, 1989; and [illegible] 1987).

2. In rural areas, where there may be limited opportunities for postsecondary support, an effective career education program can be indispensable (Smith, 1989; [illegible] Horn, E., Bierhans, [illegible] and [illegible] 1990).

3. [illegible] students had not [illegible] instead a functional [illegible] skills which these particular students would need to utilize immediately

after program completion needs to be incorporated (Batt [illegible] 1984; [illegible] 1989; and Orr, 1987)

4. Attitude correction on the part of teachers who view the student as the sole source of the problem; recent research suggests that school practices or culture may have a great deal to do with dropping or staying in school (Wehlage & Rutter, 1986).

Perhaps the best underpinning bottom line that strikes at the core of meeting transitioning students' literacy needs is summarized by Valentine (1985): "The major drawback of non traditional approaches to functional literacy instruction is that it requires radical rethinking about classroom practice. Genuine vs ersatz individualization instruction, where teachers would be continuously in a responsive rather than a directive mode, unable to rely on established formulae or published materials in making instructional decisions. Instead of moulding students to fit the type of instruction offered, teachers would tailor instruction to help learners meet the functional literacy demands they encounter, not in the classroom, but in their adult lives."

A Transdisciplinary Focus

Primary distinction between unidisciplinary, multidisciplinary, interdisciplinary, and transdisciplinary is the type and amount of interaction and communication among team members. In transdisciplinary teaming (TDT), during treatment, the roles of most disciplines are released to two or more team members who implement the treatment plans across disciplines (Wergin & Mensing, 1988).

Several reasons for adopting the TDT vs other approaches to instruction/treatment are:

1. TDT avoids redundancy of instructional units created by respective discipline's content overlap.

2. TDT diminishes high frequency relevance/meaningfulness questions posed by students through integration/synthesis of content areas fostering generalization.

3. TDT provides more flexibility and availability of limited resources.

4. TDT has greater face validity and reliability with team assessment of student performance.

5. TDT expands ownership and expertise through the process of role release among participating faculty, community members, and students.

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The Model's Purpose and Context

The primary focus of the model and ongoing descriptive study is to provide an interactive synthesis of current information on the parameters of functional literacy in rural communities and a description of a consequent performance-based, transdisciplinary-transitional, instructional intervention. This intervention will not only allow teachers, students, administrators, and the community to uniquely explore, determine, and derive grounded literacy norms within their rural context as a team, but also illustrates a framework for an additional cost-benefit use of limited, and in many rural areas, already strained resources. This approach emphasizes both inter and intra personal active participation by the students as well as an interactive intra-school, intra/inter-community involvement suggesting participants to include: parents, teachers, school administrators, local business persons, and government representatives at various agencies and levels.

Although this approach was originally developed and implemented in the 70's in a small town private/parochial high school located in Northern Wisconsin, it has been used and adapted by many classroom teachers in various parts of the country in both rural and urban areas, as well as regular and special education. The information was disseminated to respective educators as a consequence of the author's work as a secondary mathematics teacher, educational diagnostician, and school psychologist respectively.

Initially this model/intervention was the response to serious questions of the appropriateness of the mathematics curriculum and texts used for students that were not "college bound". The course was entitled "Consumer's Math" and is exceptionally similar to many courses of the same or similar name today with little to no change in content nor recursive methodology. This course is typically taught as the follow-up to a "Fundamentals of Math" course (or related course) in both regular and special education systems across various E-A - LRE integration parameters in which students learn the essential elements and earn Carnegie credits.

The student population was mostly drawn from the local town with many students commuting from various adjacent rural farming communities which in most cases were members of a cooperative public school consortium. In addition this school served as an alternative school for some students that were expelled from public school and/or were adjudicated delinquents and ordered by the court to be in attendance.

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Several other students were attending the school as part of a progressive treatment program while residing at a private treatment facility for children and adolescents with emotional and/or related disabilities. Most of these students were from other communities and other States.

The main instructional educational service provided at the school was regular education courses with no recognized special education services as we know them according to currents standards. Consequently the program for better or worse was in retrospect a "full inclusion" model without the benefit of current special instructional and administrative support. Initially, the model intervention was utilized by two math teachers and later expanded to include the Business, and again later the English and Social Studies departments in a transdisciplinary fashion.

The Model: A Game Intervention

Overview

The rationale for a functional life-span curriculum that employs natural settings for learning is linked to research indicating that (a) the aquisition of functional skills by learners with handicaps increases when instruction is conducted in natural environments; (b) the use of natural environments for training increases retention and the generalization of skills; and, (c) natural environments provide students in special education programs with opportunities to interact with persons without disabilities (D'Alonzo, 1991; Dever, 1988;, Falvey, 1986).

The scope and sequence of the curriculum and teaching/intervention episodes of the model largely centered around gradual modifications and content adaptions of the game of Monopoly by Parker Bros. Corp. Traditonal sequencing according to some text was replaced through a collaborative effort by teachers involved. Individual learning packets were developed for respective learning modules that were in part developed by the students, respective teachers, and by information garnered in various ways with community members. The content of these packets was then introduced into the context of the game during regularly scheduled class times. A gradual introduction to various relevant and personnally meaningful types of content gleaned from both classroom packets/simulations and guided instructional student field generated activities would be woven into a transitional "survival curriculum." Direction was determined by utilizing our "sense of" what people needed to function in an at least a minimally utilitarian fashion

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ith curriculum in context. The platform [illegible] was a feedback [illegible] in which the students as consumers could offer comments and react [illegible] content integration [illegible] authentic [illegible] instructional materials could be restricted to those drawn from learners' own environments, thereby heightening their motivation to achieve, enhancing their understanding of purposes and uses of literacy, and increasing the possibility that learners will already possess the knowledge structures and cognitive hooks necessary for the assimilation of reading content (Valentine, 1985).

Transitioning and lifelong learning includes training about careers, but it also embraces daily living skills, human relationships, values, attitudes and habits. To the extent that is appropriate, the process must include development of academic as well as vocational skills. (D'Alonzo, B., Giordano, G., and Cole, J., 1992) By compressing the five stages of career development (D'Alonzo, B., Giordano, G., and Cole, J., 1992) and focusing on the more age and future needs appropriate career examination stage, the teacher and students begin to concentrate on the refinement of the precise skills that are prerequisite for entry into the vocational areas that interest students. In addition to vocational skills, academic, social, critical thinking, and decision making skills can be incorporated into such training via the game simulation.

It is during this phase of the career component in the game curriculum students are made aware that there are specific skills they will need to apply and to successfully interview for and hold a job (D'Alonzo et al, 1992). It is important to remember that the ability to read and write is linked to more than just salary. It is often a key factor not only in the degree of self-determination people have but also in the amount of influence and power they can exert to shape the character and direction of their communities (Apple, 1982; Freire & Macedo, 1987; Graff, 1987).

Format of a Game Curriculum

On a week to week basis TDT members met to define, develop, and generate activities that would be addressed in a class forum for feedback and initial execution by the students, who then researched and/or tested the content appropriate learning activity in the field. Task closure resulted in student gathered data bases from their classroom field work being incorporated into the ever changing context of Monopoly game itself being

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[illegible] with [illegible] values, [illegible] wave, conditions, [illegible] addressed [illegible] comments, issues, etc.

The [illegible] maintaining high student and teacher interest, motivation, cooperation, problem-solving, decision-making, and generalization was to [illegible] the teaching instructional format. While some content and respective learning activities took more time than others, a typical weekly routine would be two instructional meetings, two game meetings, one field/resource speaker meeting. Specific curriculum content domains were derived and adapted from various texts: Math, English, Business, and Social Studies, student input (both IEP &ITP's, and self-stated), parents and community members and synthesized for particular learning packets, field activities, and game play.

Examples of **domains** and integrated activities across disciplines:

Communication Skills

Math	English	Business
Statistics in Adds	Writing an Add	Marketing product
Calculations	Writing a script	Commercial TV

Activity: Students bring in various product adds from newspapers, magazines, etc. and use experience base and materials on fallacious thinking to win an argument including the use of statistics.

Math: Developing a student's statistical sense of a good or bad deal! Use heuristic approach with plethora of examples of good & bad deals based on their experiences with numeral reasoning hidden in the adds. Previous unit on understanding and using simple %'s in everyday life (pocket calculators)

Business: Developing a student's ability to understand the process of marketing and direct sales of a product through audience targeting, needs vs wants characteristics, and life-importance context. Use heuristic approach with plethora of examples of good & bad marketing and sales gimmics based on their experiences. Glean the essential features for organizing a plan of marketing for their product through the production of radio or TV add.

English: Developing a student's ability to understand the semantic processes of reading and writing an effective add (words, phrases, slang, etc.) used by targeted audiences to sell their product. Oversee the writing of an add and script for the production of a commercial to market their product.

Game transfer: Various scenarios are drafted by respective teachers to replace existing content on the Chance and Community Chest Cards that accompany the game.

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Example 4: Congratulations on your promotion! Because of company image you'll need to buy a better car: Mercedes, BMW or Cadillac. The company will lease it for you or simply pay you 10 cents a mile for company use or [illegible] CHOOSE [illegible]

Carreer Examination Skills

Math	English	Business
training costs	reading and writing	interview skills
income	requirements	dress & style
budgets lifestyle	interview language	interview form

Activity: Students develop a list of rank-ordered occupations and use materials developed in class for obtaining career & lifestyle data base information in the field by interviewing respective professionals.

Math: Developing a student's monetary sense of a particular career and affordable life style issues.
Use heuristic approach with examples of careers based on their experiences and research on chosen occupation. Develop a format to wholistically view major catagories emerging from their data base.

Business: Developing a student's ability to understand the interview process, tact, style, and personal presentation characteristics, and life-importance context. Use heuristic role play approach with examples of good & bad interview experiences. Glean the essential features for organizing an interview form to follow. Rules for interviewing.

English: Developing a student's ability to understand the semantic processes of reading and writing in effective interviewing: words, phrases, slang, etc. used by interviewers for targeted audiences. Oversee the writing of an interview script.

Game Transfer: Instead of collecting $200 for passing GO, the student collects the monthly income of some randomly selected profession/career that students researched. In addition, you may initiate a family budget with monthly bills that are payable (auto-deduct) each paycheck before a player may purchase a property or some other criteria.

The Game Expansion Through Iteration Intervention

The curriculum becomes grounded in what [illegible] resources use in meeting their immediate and long term needs as reflected in their presence itself in the game board across respective domains and literacy contexts. The amount of useable content to be developed into an activity in the field is limited only to one's own willingness to observe the daily soap operas that occur both in our lives and our students. Imagine what one could do with teaching the idea of National Debt at the local level by incorporating in the game the purchasing of property either by personal check or charge card only. Imagine further if one was to change the original board properties and design your own relative to your city, town, rural community, that includes changes brought by developers, federal action (land management), environmental issues, etc. Interest peaks when students are buying and selling property with which they are familiar. This has occassioned a financial role-reversal for various students within the context of the game but the social dynamics are quite real, insightful, and provides a data base and experiential framework for another learning packet/activity in social skills and issues.

Some Retrospective Outcomes:

1. Students became more involved, attended more regularly, increased their confidence, better precision and accuracy in assigned work, and a general positive increase in peer and teacher regard in their own schools.

2. Parents and community members indicated that they believed their children were getting something very useful, something they wished they had learned instead of always being "a day late and a dollar short."

3. Teachers became more involved with the community as a consequence of the outreach for skills' participants in curriculum development field activities.

4. More time for teacher professional development activities and individual student help was becoming available for TDT teachers particularly when class scheduling could be adapted to fit the needs of the TDT approach.

5. Teachers and students relayed a more satisfying experience with school performance evaluation using individual and cooperative methods.

6. Administrative at risk behavior was reinforced across multiple settings in school and the community. Critical to a TDT model instructional approach is the cooperation and support of your administrative team so cultivate your gatekeepers!

Remember if you borrow small, you'll have creditors; if you borrow large, you'll have partners!

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USE OF NEGOTIATION AND MEDIATION IN SPECIAL EDUCATION

Introduction

Public Law 94-142 and its subsequent revisions and accompanying regulations place significant requirements on the public school. Specifically, schools are required to provide (1) a free and appropriate public education, (2) an education in the least restrictive environment, and (3) an individualized education plan.

Throughout the development of each component for the individual child, parents may and frequently do disagree with the recommendations of the public school. As provided by PL94-142, both parents and schools may invoke a formal process of procedures to resolve the dispute. This may involve a formal due process procedure with possible litigation. Both due process hearings and litigation are expensive actions. Ekstrand, & Edmister (1984) point out time, and financial and emotional costs on the disputants are significant. As well as being stressful on the individual parties it taxes working relationships. Yet, more and more parents and school districts are turning to legal processes to resolve educational disputes. However, the nature of the educational dispute may not be one that is suitable to litigation. From a practical point of view, mutual and satisfactory resolution of the problem is more likely through negotiation or mediation rather than more formal procedures.

Negotiation

Negotiation may involve the settling of an educational dispute by employing a third party to hear both sides in the dispute and recommend a resolution (Schabarum, Hahn, Edelman, Dana, & Antonovich, 1986). Typically, schools utilize negotiations on an ongoing basis (e.g., administrators acting as the third party). However, the third party may be employed by the school district or have some relationship with the parents. As a result, the judgement or experience of the negotiator may be a consideration to either party. However, a type of negotiation strategy which employs a third party with no apparent allegiance to either party is the Protection and Advocacy system.

In 1977 the U.S. Congress passed, and the President signed, PL 95-602: Mental Retardation Facilities and Community Health Centers Construction Act of 1963, as amended. Section 113 of the Act established the Protection and Advocacy Systems for the Developmentally Disabled. Congress established the Protection and Advocacy System because persons with developmental disabilities are often unaware of laws to protect them from abuse, neglect, and denial of services. Even when they are aware of such laws, they are often unable to enforce these laws so as to protect their rights.

According to the legislation, a Protection and Advocacy System is "a planned and organized mechanism or aggregate of related entities which includes but is not limited to the Protection and Advocacy agency and which: (1) is designed to defend the rights and interest of persons with developmental disabilities, and (2) can provide assistance to such persons in pursuing grievances by either interceding or initiating action on their behalf, (3) has, or can invoke assistance from an agency that has the authority to investigate allegations of abuse, neglect or denial of rights, and (4) has capacity to pursue administrative, legal, and other appropriate remedies."

The protection and advocacy system addressed here began operation in November, 1982. The primary goal of it was, and continues to be, to protect and advocate the rights of persons with developmental disabilities individually, and when necessary and appropriate, collectively. The goals were established to provide maximum opportunity and development of skills for self-advocacy by persons with developmental disabilities and their advocates, and to provide such intervention as may be needed to safeguard the individual rights of persons with disabilities, as provided by PL95-602.

For the purpose of the presentation, the data collected from a rural state during a three year period (1986 - 1988) were reviewed. The case files included information organized according to intake date, closure date, disability, problem referral source, intervention, and address. During this time, 128 new referrals were made. Of that number, ninety-five (74%) were classified as problems relating to education. The remaining thirty-three (26%) referrals included a variety of topics, including: housing, child visitations, contracts, criminal activity, employment, discrimination, medical services, entitlement, daycare, and so on. The referral sources were varied, and included: self-referrals, friends, parents, teachers, counselors, attorneys, and so on. The interventions that were most often required focus on information, counseling, and sometimes negotiation.

In retrospect, it appears to have been an unwritten and unofficial policy of the Board of Directors to prefer to engage in discussion and negotiation, rather than litigation. Compromises were sometimes necessary, but an individual's rights were never sacrificed. When resources were limited, special attention was paid to investments of both time and money. Negotiation was found to be far more cost effective than litigation.

Negotiation is a procedure which is ongoing in many schools. In involves a face-to-face meeting with the disputing parties and usually entails a third party who recommends a resolution to the conflict. However, if such a procedure fails, mediation may be utilized to resolve the continuing dispute (Ekstrand, 1983).

Mediation

Chandler (1985) describes mediation as a "resource for handling conflict between people by providing a neutral forum in which disputants are encouraged to find a mutually satisfactory resolution to their problem." The mediator has no power to render a decision or to recommend a possible solution to the educational dispute. On the contrary, the mediator works with the disputing parties to gain a mutually agreeable resolution. This resolution is developed by the disputants. Since the resolution is mutually developed, both parties recognize the agreement as a compromise which is feasible to both. The only tools the mediator has to work with involve:

1) setting the rules of the mediation (i.e., assuring both parties of the opportunity to present their case, offering a forum for open discussion, and recording an agreement),
2) eliminating adversarial conduct, and
3) developing the confidence of both parties (i.e., pointing out the nonbinding nature of the process, assuring both parties of the impartiality and confidentially of the session, recognizing both parties have nothing to lose in participating in the process) (Ekstrand, 1983).

Typically, the process of mediation may occur through each or any of three procedures:

1) open session (individual uninterrupted sharing),

2) general discussion of the issues, and

3) caucus (each party meets with the mediator to clarify issues or to share concerns) (Neighborhood Justice Center of Atlanta, 1982).

The mediation data presented here was collected from a rural state during a five year period (1986 - 1990). When a school district or parent filed a complaint with the State Education Agency, the disputants were offered the opportunity to mediate the dispute. Of twenty-three complaints, mediation was utilized in thirteen cases (57%). An agreement was developed by the parties in eight of the thirteen cases in which mediation was utilized(62%). Although the data appear to indicate mediation achieved mixed results, mediation saved the parties a significant amount of time (due process hearings may take as much as forty-five days, court hearing months), and expense (due process hearings may cost upwards of $8000.00 and litigation much more) (National Association of State Directors of Special Education, 1982). In addition, the informal process of mediation may have lessened the hostility and provide a foundation for future partnerships in the disputing parties.

Summary

The use of informal procedures to resolve special education disputes such as negotiation and mediation are not required but encouraged by federal regulation (Ekstrand, & Edmister, 1983). Neither negotiation nor mediation can preclude the due process rights or the time table of said process for either party. In addition, either party may opt out of either procedure at any time. However, both processes offer a means of resolving special education disputes while avoiding the adversarial approaches of due process and litigation. In fact, Goldberg (1989) suggests due process and litigation may not operate as it was originally designed by Congress. He further states it is the least desirable choice for resolving special education disputes. In addition, both negotiation and mediation may result in

- discovery of mutual interests,
- joint problem solving,
- win/win solutions,
- orientation to the future,
- multiple options,
- creative, flexible solutions,
- respect for and sharing of differing expertise by parents and professionals,
- control of the outcome in the hands of the parties, not a third party, and

- control of the process by a neutral mediator (Primm, 1990).

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Mathematics Activities for Rural Classrooms in Tennessee: Development, Implementation, and Evaluation Results in Grades 5-8

Background

In 1985-1986, a state-wide committee of Tennessee mathematics educators developed the Mathematics Curriculum Frameworks for Grades K-8 and state curriculum guides for each grade. The guide included instructional objectives, associated content synopses, skills, and activities to facilitate the implementation of the Mathematics Curriculum Framework at the local level. The state curriculum was divided into strands. For K-8, the strands were: numeration; operations on whole numbers and integers; fractions and decimals; graphing, probability, and statistics; problem-solving and applications; measurement; geometry; and ratio, proportion, and percent. The last strand did not begin formally until grade 6. Each guide contained the following statements:

> The final "critical factor" is the use of concrete experiences as students learn a new skill at any level. Without the understanding that comes from concrete experiences, the rote learning of skills has little meaning. The transition from concrete to abstract should be a slow, deliberate process, and at all levels, new concepts should be introduced through concrete experiences. (Tennessee Department of Education, vi)

Because of space limitations in the guides, the activities were described in one or two paragraphs. The elementary committee suggested that a separate activity manual be developed for each grade; but there was no state money for the development of the activity manuals. In 1986-1987, as the guides were distributed throughout the state, one comment was repeated: How do we use activities and manipulatives in the classroom?

Draft Versions of the Manuals

In the fall of 1988, the Center of Excellence for Science and Mathematics Education (CESME) at The University of Tennessee at Martin, wrote a proposal for unallocated Eisenhower funds from the State Department of Education. This grant provided for the development of the activity manuals, correlated to the state curriculum.

Seventeen elementary teachers and seven secondary teachers wrote the draft versions of the manuals from January-June, 1989. The teachers met once a week for three hours to write, edit, and discuss the activities. During the writing process, activity-based mathematics and manipulatives were demonstrated. Since the draft version of the *Curriculum and Evaluation Standards for School Mathematics* was available and the final version would be released in March, discussions of the *Standards* occurred during most sessions. The teachers also wrote during the week. After school was out in May and through the month of June, the group worked together every day.

Before the writing began, Sue Boren (Department of Mathematics and Computer Science) and Robert L. Hartshorn (Department of Educational Studies and Associate Director of Research and Evaluation for the CESME) developed a form in which all activities would be written. The original form was clarified and modified by the teachers. The components were: activity name, strand, objectives, prerequisites, materials needed, instructions to the teacher for making the activity, instructions to the teacher for conducting the activity, directions to the students (if applicable), variations, extensions, references, and blackline masters. Each activity was to be written so that a beginning teacher in the first week of school could use the activity.

There is a manual for each grade K-8. The seventh and eighth grade manuals may be used with arithmetic 9 and pre-algebra. The Algebra Manual includes Algebra I and II. The Unified Geometry manual covers only that course. The Advanced Topics Manual includes selected topics from advanced courses beyond Algebra I, II and Unified Geometry.

Each manual contained an introduction which listed the instructional strategies recommended in the *Standards* and described hints for making the activities, such as how to laminate, to make spinners, and to store multiple sets of the same activity. There were appendices for tangram patterns, I *Have . . . Who Has . . . ?* cards, concentration cards, and graph paper.

The draft versions of the manuals were mailed to teachers across the state who had agreed to pilot activities during the 1989-1990 school year. Approximately 144 teachers from 43 systems (including two private schools) initially agreed to pilot the manuals during the 1989-1990 school year. By May 30, 1990, 113 teachers from 40 systems (including one private school) completed all parts of the pilot program.

Revision of the Manuals

At the end of February 1990, descriptions and applications for the revision project were mailed to the writers and pilot teachers. A week later the same information was sent to supervisors of instruction, directors of federal projects, and teacher center directors. The total mailed was 450-500. Announcement of the program was run in the March 20th issue of *Mathematical Moments*.

The composition of the revision teams is described below.

Description	Proposed	Actual
Two teachers for each of the grades K-8	18	13
Three teachers each for algebra I and II, unified geometry, and selected topics from the advanced mathematics courses	9	5
Six teachers to complement the teams as necessary	6	2

By the middle of May, it was evident that certain grade levels did not have enough applications to develop workable teams. Follow-up letters were mailed to increase the number of participants for kindergarten, grades 2 and 4-6, and algebra. Calls were made to teachers and supervisors.

There was no team for grade 4 so Boren was responsible for that grade. The other teachers helped to decide the direction of the revisions for grade 4. The actual revisions were made after the project ended.

Implementation of the Manuals

Order forms were mailed to the 139 Tennessee systems in the fall of 1990. Approximately 115 of the 139 systems have purchased the manuals in large quantities. Some systems purchased the manuals with Eisenhower money and provided inservice training.

The inservice training, including making the activities, proved to be a critical component. The publication of the *Curriculum and Evaluation Standards for School Mathematics* by the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics in the spring of 1989 encouraged an activity-based mathematics program for K-12. The CESME wrote an Eisenhower proposal for funding through the Tennessee Higher Education Commission. Through this grant, 21 three-teacher teams were trained in the summer of 1991 to implement the activities in their systems and in their classrooms. Each team was composed of a K-4, 5-8, and 9-12 teacher. For most of the training, the teams were in groups according to grade levels.

The week's training began with a general session in which schedules were reviewed, expectations for the week were explained, and a model lesson plan (see Appendix) based on the *Standards* was described. During that session, the *Curriculum and Evaluation Standards for School Mathematics* and their implications for the project were discussed.

Tennessee teachers had been very negative toward the implementation of calculators. Since the *Standards* said "appropriate calculators should be available to all students at all times" and the manuals did not actually address calculator usage, the workshop leaders decided to introduce calculators into the project. The first evening, each group participated in calculator activities appropriate to grade levels. The K-4 group used a four-function calculator; 5-8, the TI-12 Explorer calculator; 9-12, a scientific calculator and the TI-81 graphing calculator. These calculators were available throughout the project.

The workshop leaders had written or revised the activity manuals. Each leader had more than 10 years teaching experience. They led activities and modeled lessons which incorporated activities as the teaching strategy. The participants had to present an activity from the manuals for the group. The most important part of the project was the making of activities. Each participant left the workshop with approximately 12 activities for inservice programs and classroom use. The instructors found it difficult to keep the participants on task because they were so excited about making the activities!

The availability of resource materials and catalogs allowed the participants to judge the quality and prices of the materials for themselves. As commercial manipulatives were used in the project, the participants could judge the manipulatives for suitable use in their own system. For example, commercial tangrams are expensive, but six tangrams can be cut from one sheet of needlepoint plastic mesh. The mesh comes in several colors. The sheets had been purchased at a local store for K-4 teachers. This group in particular used the sheets for several different ideas.

The system teams had to develop the outlines for inservice plans and the activities. The inservice was to be six hours for each grade level grouping. The team members had to decide which activities to use and to have their teachers make. Supply lists had to be compiled. The team wrote a plan to present to the system contact person for approval. The system was encouraged to continue to use the team as resource people for implementing activity-based mathematics.

Both teams and individuals on the teams have provided inservice to more than 4000 individuals. Because of presentations at regional and national mathematics meetings, manuals have been shipped to 16 states, District of Columbia, and Canada.

Evaluation

The evaluation by the Appalachian Educational Laboratory (AEL) sought to investigate the possible influence of the use of mathematics activities on grade 5-8 students in the classrooms of teachers who agreed to change their instructional routines by incorporating such activities. Students attended predominantly rural schools. Exploratory (post hoc) statistical analysis focused on changes in measures of students' (1) affective response to mathematics and (2) achievement.

CESME and AEL staff collaborated in the development of a research instrument to measure affective changes. The resulting 12-item instrument measured two factors (alpha reliability of about 0.85). Factor 1 concerned students' attitudes towards mathematics (consisting of six items about the usefulness and meaning of mathematics in the world). Factor 2 concerned students' opinions about mathematics (largely consisting of personal views about engagement with mathematics instruction).

Achievement was measured with the Comprehensive Test of Basic Skills, Fourth Edition (Macmillan/McGraw-Hill, 1989). The CTBS/4 was administered to project students as part of the regular Tennessee Comprehensive Assessment Program testing schedule, as both a pre- and post-test measure. Subtest scores used to construct the dependent variables (i.e., gain scores) were (1) mathematics computation, (2) mathematics concepts and applications, (3) mathematics total, and (4) total CTBS/4 battery scores.

Dependent variables for the purposes of this evaluation were affective and achievement gain scores. Affective gain scores were the difference between pre- and post-test 12-item and the two factor scores, computed separately. Achievement gain scores were the difference between pre- and post-test scores, measured in NCE units. For both affective gains and achievement gains, the analysis tested the differences in various group means and included correlation and regression analysis to help determine the unique contribution of teachers' use of mathematics activities to the dependent measures (i.e., affective and achievement gain scores).

Analysis of Changes in Affective Scores

For the subject group *as a whole*, affective gain scores remained constant. The statistically significant observed *decline* in opinion (factor 2) scores (negative gain score) was small (i.e., about $\frac{1}{20}$ of a standard deviation). One-way Analysis of Variance, however, showed that total 12-item affective gain scores and attitude (factor 1) gain scores varied significantly by teacher. The range of variation, in practical terms, was quite large--about two standard deviations, such that students of some teachers increased scores by approximately one standard deviation, whereas students of other teachers decreased their scores approximately one standard deviation.

Exploratory regression analyses suggested that use of mathematics activities may account for at least some of the variation of teacher influence on affective gain scores. First, the *quality of a teacher's engagement* with the activities (measured by the percent of activities used for which project teachers wrote narrative comments) exerts a positive influence on students' affective gain scores, principally through its influence on attitude (factor 1) gain scores. Second, the purpose for which a teacher used activities seems to exert a positive influence on affective gain scores. Percent of activities to *introduce topics* to students exerts this positive influence principally through its influence on opinion (factor 2) gain scores.

These results remain statistically significant even when *pre-test measures* (both achievement and affective scores) and *ascribed background variables* (i.e., sex, risk status, grade, and period) are statistically controlled. That is, the positive influence of using mathematics activities on affective gains exists even when the influence of powerful background variables is statistically removed.

Results of the exploratory regression analyses seem to imply that the use of mathematics activities in these largely rural middle-grade mathematics classrooms served to mitigate the negative influence on mathematics attitudes (factor 1) of *being female*. Conclusions about causality are not warranted, however.

Analysis of Changes in Achievement Scores

For the project group as a whole, achievement gains are about what would be expected. However, for the group as a whole, *observed* NCE achievement post-test scores exceeded NCE achievement pre-test scores on all measures. Only NCE total battery post-test scores, however, were higher than the pre-test score at a statistically significant level; observed increases in the three NCE mathematics scores were not, however, statistically significant. Within the subject group, however, considerable variability existed among the NCE achievement gain scores of different groupings of students.

One-way Analysis of Variance showed that all NCE achievement gain scores varied significantly by teacher. In addition, gain scores varied according to other influences, as follows:

- NCE mathematics computation gain scores varied significantly by (1) grade and (2) period;
- NCE mathematics concepts and applications gain scores varied significantly by (1) sex, (2) risk status, (3) grade, and (4) period;
- NCE mathematics total gain scores varied significantly by (1) sex and (2) period; and
- NCE total battery gain scores varied significantly by (1) grade and (2) period.

Two-way Analyses of Variance revealed that some ascribed variables (i.e., sex, risk status, grade, and period) showed significant two-way interaction effects with teacher, as well. Mathematics computation gain scores vary jointly by (1) teacher and sex (direction of difference varies by teacher) and (2) teacher and risk status (direction, again, varies by teacher). Total battery gain scores vary jointly by (1) teacher and sex (direction varying, again, by teacher) and (2) teacher and risk status (varying by teacher, once again).

As with affective gain scores, regression analyses--which statistically removed the influence of powerful background variables--suggested that the use of mathematics activities exerted a statistically significant positive influence on achievement gain scores. In the case of achievement gain scores, the variable that exerted this influence was the average number of activities used by a teacher per class. The effect was observed for both computation and for concepts and applications gain scores. As with affective gain scores, this influence helps to account for some of the variation of gain scores observed in students of different teachers.

Regression analyses may imply that the use of mathematics activities in these largely rural middle grade mathematics classrooms serve to mitigate such negative influences as student risk status and sex. Again, definitive conclusions about causality are not warranted on the basis of exploratory regression analysis.

Implications for Practice

This evaluation suggests that the use of mathematics activities--specifically those implemented in the project classrooms--helped improve student achievement and affect in project classrooms. The various analyses suggest, moreover, that the use of these activities helped blunt the negative influence of gender (principally being female) and risk status (principally low income sufficient to qualify a student to receive free or reduced price meals) among students in project classrooms.

At the same time, these benefits did not accrue to all students, but only to students in the classrooms of some teachers. Three variables associated with the teachers' use of the activities exerted a positive influence, even with the effect of powerful background variables (pre-test scores, gender, risk status, and others). Percent of activities used by a teacher to introduce a topic positively influenced students' affect through its influence on opinions (factor 2 gain scores). A teacher's "engagement" with the activities (reflected in more extensive narrative comments) positively influenced students' affect through its apparent influence on attitudes (factor 1 gain scores). On the other hand, the sheer number of activities used per class positively influenced achievement gain scores.

As exploratory regression analyses suggest, prior affect influences achievement. At the same time, prior achievement influences affect. Improvements in both students' achievement and affect will inevitably influence one another, over time. On the basis of this evaluation, tentative recommendations are ventured, as follows:

- The use of one or two carefully chosen activities per week--principally to introduce topics--seems to offer the best chance of helping students improve their performance in mathematics, in so far as it is possible to judge from the data gathered and the exploratory analyses conducted.

- Teachers should be prepared to "engage" the activities. That is, they should view them as important, useful, and productive for their students. They should reflect on the experience of using them and take a hand in developing and elaborating activities.

- Some teachers who want to use activities could apparently benefit from peer-coaching or other sorts of consistent mentoring from teachers who are successfully "engaging" the activities. Such arrangements obviously require trust, commitment, and release time (at least for mentors or coaches, and ideally for those receiving mentorship as well).

Limitations

The evaluation of student achievement and affect did not employ a control group, but relied on post hoc analyses of subject students and teachers. Data analysis, therefore, most be considered exploratory; results suggest circumstances that require experimental and longitudinal designs for confirmation.

In addition, it should be noted that the apparently influential teacher variables represented averages based on teachers' self-reports. They were not derived from direct observation in each particular classroom. One might hypothesize that the influences suggested by this analysis would appear stronger still if such direct observation could be accomplished in the future. Direct observation might well discover other variables that might better account for the apparent influences found in this evaluation. The question may devolve to the perennial (and difficult to determine) issue of what makes a good teacher good.

One also needs to remember that a certain vision of mathematics learning surrounds this implementation. The use of mathematics activities is part of that vision, but it by no means represents the entire vision. The ultimate goal is to engage students more fully and more often in considering mathematical ideas and participating in mathematical discourse. The use of the *Mathematics Activities Manuals* appears to be a quite reasonable and promising strategy for helping teachers and students advance toward that goal.

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Appendix
Lesson Plan, Grades 5-8

Teacher: ____________________ Course: ____________________

Unit: ____________________ Focus: ____________________

Curriculum Objectives:

Resources: ____________________ Calculators: ______

____

____

Transparencies*: ______________ Handouts*: ______________

Worksheets*: ______________ Text Pages: ______________

Supplies: ______________________________________

____

____

*Attach a copy

Warm-Up:

Vocabulary:

Background:

Implications for Future Lessons:

Lesson Overview:

Evaluation: Classwork ____________________
Homework ____________________
Project ____________________
Quiz ____________________

Enrichment:

Remediation:

NCTM Standards 5-8:
____ Problem Solving
____ Communication
____ Reasoning
____ Connections
____ Number & Number Relationships
____ Number Systems/Theory
____ Computation/Estimation
____ Patterns/Functions
____ Algebra
____ Statistics
____ Probability
____ Geometry
____ Measurement

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ADAPTING TEXT TO MEET THE LITERACY NEEDS OF SPECIAL LEARNERS IN RURAL SETTINGS

Introduction

The rural schools are facing the problem of the growing number of students being identified as developmentally disabled. With the reality of limited budgets and resources in the rural settings, the students are placing demands on the schools to meet their literacy needs without the future of expanded revenues. One way to address the literacy needs of developmentally disabled students is for teachers to adapt the existing materials to meet their needs. To do this teachers will have to be provided with in-service training on adapting materials to the student's learning styles along with skill development in the use of appropriate teaching methods and strategies to meet their needs. A paramount of research has been published on preparing the students with developmental disabilities to overcome illiteracy. One of the techniques that one may wish to consider is the skills of adapting text to meet the literacy needs of the developmentally disabled.

The student-text match (Schumm and Strickler, 1991) is one skill that should be considered prior to making text modifications. The rural settings with limited resources many times also have a limited array of textbooks and many times the teacher is forced to use what is available. In many incidences the text do not match the student's reading levels and may be well beyond the readability level of the students. Headings, highlighted vocabulary and subheadings may not be present, causing difficulty in determining the text's organizational format. Another problem that frequently exists is the sentence concept load may be too great for a student with weak reading skills to derive meaning from the text.

Text adaptation for the teacher in the rural setting is a complex task that requires a match between classroom needs, student needs and textbook demands (Meese, 1992). Rewriting of textbooks is a time consuming venture which does not need to be done. Instead, the teacher should modify the text or modify the instructional strategies when presenting the concepts in the text. The teacher needs to address student directed modifications which is an important text adaptation strategy in meeting the student's literacy needs.

One way to address the student-text match is by administering a cloze test using passages from the book. Besides providing the reading level, it will also provide the text readability level. Schumm and Strickler (1991) suggest that student's awareness of textbook organizational patterns needs to be addressed by the teacher. They also suggest the administering of a content reading inventory in which students are asked vocabulary and comprehension questions at the factual as well as inferential and evaluative levels. Another technique would be to preview textbooks with the students to determine their knowledge of textbook organizational tools and study aids as a means of determining the match between the student and the textbook. The teacher can then address which methods for increasing comprehension would work best with the student. The teacher may choose to use textbook modifications and/or instructional modifications to meet the needs of the student or a combination of the two.

Textbook Modification

Many time a discrepancy between the reader and text may be significant enough that the decoding of words, not the comprehension of the concepts, becomes the focus of the task. Simplifying the sentence structure and vocabulary, tape recording the material, using alternative material, highlighting the key concepts and simplifying the content by addressing the text organization are examples of the types of modifications that can be used by rural classroom teachers to foster comprehension.

One way to address textbook modification strategies is to simplify the vocabulary and sentence structure. Shortening the sentences and simpler vocabulary may not produce a product that is easier to read. Armbruster and Anderson (1988) stated that it is important that cohesive ties such as coordinate and subordinate conjunctions, pronouns referents and signal words such as next, first, etc., not be eliminated. Topic sentences for each paragraph and transition sentences to the next paragraph improve comprehension so care must be taken to ensure that these are not eliminated or shortened so that their effect is minimized. Graphic information needs to be evaluated for its importance to the comprehension of the text and questions embedded in the text so that visual presentations of information are used as learning tools (Reynolds and Salend, 1990). When simplifying vocabulary, the repetition of key words rather than the use of synonyms and the inclusion of examples after a definition is given have shown to improve comprehension.

Tape recording a textbook is a simple but time-consuming process. Student or adult volunteers can be used, but care must be taken to assure that they read clearly and at a reasonable rate. The students with reading problems can listen to those tapes at home or in a special education classroom to reinforce the concepts (Wood and Wooley, 1986). Rose and Beattie (1986) found that listening to a prerecorded tape of material can improve student accuracy rate in oral reading. To further enhance the comprehension of the material, inserting summaries, emphasizing key vocabulary words, explaining graphic information or instructing students to listen for answers to specific questions can be included in the recording of the text.

Alternative materials may be used to modify or supplement the text. Many excellent computer programs are available that provide a well-organized and logical presentation of the material and allow students to interact with the computer program to receive immediate feedback and remediation (Reynolds and Salend, 1990). Films and video tapes can also be used as alternative materials. High Interest-Low Vocabulary materials may need to be used with students whose reading skills are significantly low. Care must be taken, however, to assure that the required concepts are addressed; and that through the simplification process, important background information has not been omitted.

Highlighting key concepts can be an effective textbook modification strategy. Color coding words or sentences using highlighter pens to identify important information can aid comprehension, assuming that marking in the textbook is acceptable. Wood and Wooley (1986) suggest using three colors, one for important terms, one for definitions and a third for important facts.

Content simplification can be achieved through effective organization of the information presented in the text. All textbooks do not lend themselves to writing a basic outline of the concepts presented. Research has found that many content-area texts are not well structured (Armbruster and Anderson, 1988). Transitions from topic to topic are often abrupt and confusing, chronological sequences are confusing and graphics may be used more for decoration than comprehension (Armbruster and Anderson, 1988).

Beech (1983) suggests the following guidelines be used when simplifying content to assure effective organization of the material: present ideas logically, sequence events in chronological order, cluster related information and eliminate extraneous information.

Instructional Modifications

The rural environment presents a good setting to be able to use teacher-directed instructional strategies. Teaching reading comprehension is an effective tool to use for the rural students who have demonstrated poor reading skills. Other proven reading strategies would include providing advance organizers and study guides, previewing the text using text organizational strategies, pre-teaching critical vocabulary, shortening the length of assignments and modeling effective reading strategies.

Prior to having the rural students engage in independent reading the teacher may wish to provide the students with advance organizers. Research has indicated that an improvement in reading comprehension has been demonstrated by students when advance organizers have been provided. The advance organizers also help the students use their prior knowledge of a topic so that they can integrate prior information with the new information that they obtain from the reading. Pearson and Johnson (1978) suggested in their research that semantic mapping may be one strategy that can be used to activate background knowledge. Bos and Vaughn (1991) demonstrated through their research on the Schema Theory the importance of prior knowledge in the comprehension of the information to be presented. Free association enables the students and teachers to develop lists of words that pertain to a topic and enables them to arrange them in a network that shows their relationship to each other.

Reynolds and Salend (1990) discussed the use of study guides. They demonstrated that this effective strategy may be used to enhance comprehension by emphasizing major headings and cuing students as to the location of the answers to questions. The guides also enable the students to be directed to the purpose for reading the passage and enable the students to focus their attention on the important concepts.

Archer and Gleason (1989) suggested a teacher-directed chapter warm-up procedure:

1. Read the chapter title and introduction
2. Read the headings and subheadings
3. Read the chapter summary
4. Read the questions at the end of the chapter
5. Tell what the chapter will talk about.

This method enables the students to preview the assignments by focusing on the organization of the textbook which has shown effectiveness in improving comprehension. The students become aware of the headings, subheadings, introduction and summary which enables the student to successfully read the material on their own.

Comprehension can also be enhanced by the pre-teaching of critical vocabulary. Specialized terms and new words should be presented in context. Bos and Vaughn (1991) stated that this not only provides the definition of the terms, but establishes how the terms are used in the particular content. The use of specific examples when defining terms is also important to the retention of the meaning as well as their use in new settings.

Wood and Wooley (1986) suggest that assignments should be divided into meaningful units and students encouraged to master one unit at a time to improve their reading comprehension. This technique allows the students time to reread the material.

Tierney, Readence and Dishner (1990) discussed that modeling effective reading strategies and comprehension techniques that the teacher can provide through think-aloud activities may improve the student's approach to the reading assignments. Assignments that are read aloud in meaningful units in which the main ideas and supporting details are verbally stated will provide a guided reading lesson for the content material that is presented.

The rural teacher will discover that adapting a textbook or altering instructional procedures does not have to be a complicated and time-consuming process. when these strategies are integrated into the instructional routine, they will enhance the learning of all students. The teacher's modeling of the adaptation process will enable the students to develop their own strategies for content mastery.

Student-Directed Strategies

Reynolds and Salend (1990) discussed that student-directed strategies do not demand as much teacher-directed instruction initially, although they do require considerable direct instruction time from the teacher on how to apply them systematically and effectively.

Ellis, Deshler, Lenz, Schumaker and Clark (1991), researchers at the University of Kansas Institute for Research on Learning Disabilities (UK-IRLD), developed a model for teaching learning strategies. The model includes eight stages in the acquisition of efficient student-directed learning strategies:

Stage 1: Pretest and Make Commitments to Learn
Stage 2: Describe the Strategy
Stage 3: Model the Strategy
Stage 4: Verbally Rehearse the Steps of the Strategy
Stage 5: Practice the Strategy using Controlled Material and obtain Feedback
Stage 6: Practice the Strategy using Content Area Material
Stage 7: Posttest and Make Commitment to use the Strategy
Stage 8: Teach Generalization of the Strategy to new settings.

While anyone can develop a learning strategy, there are many that have been devised and studied for their effectiveness. Some of these include: Multipass, Active Reading, Self Questioning, Study Cards, Flip and SOS. In instructing students to use these learning strategies, the instructional model described above should be used.

One of the earliest content learning strategies is known as SQ3R (Robinson, 1961). This acronym represents the steps of the strategy which are Survey, Question, Read, Recite, Review. Multipass is a similar strategy developed at UK-IRLD (Schumaker, Deshler, Alley, Warner and Denton, 1982). This strategy includes three passes through the passage, reading only that which is necessary for each pass. The Survey Pass requires the students to read the title, headings, illustrations, chapter introduction and chapter summary. The second or Size-Up Pass requires the students to read the chapter questions and identify the ones they cannot answer. These questions are answered by skimming the chapter to find the answers. The Sort-Out Pass requires the student to test his knowledge of the content by reviewing the chapter questions again, checking off the ones known and returning to the chapter to locate forgotten information. While this strategy is complex and requires some prerequisite skills, it has been demonstrated to be effective.

Archer and Gleason (1980) discussed Active Reading which is a simple strategy designed to involve the students in verbally rehearsing and monitoring their comprehension of textbook passages. This method would be very appropriate to use in a rural setting with students who need to increase their comprehension skills. The student proceeds paragraph by paragraph using the following steps:

Step 1: Read the Paragraph and think about the topic and important details
Step 2: Cover the material
Step 3: Recite - tell yourself what you have read
Step 4: Check your answers.

This is an excellent strategy that can be used by students as they listen to a recorded text. The student can develop their own questions, instead of the teacher doing it for them, based on the main ideas and details.

Self Questioning strategies have been developed based on the research that demonstrates that questioning plays an important role in the comprehension process. Wong and Jones (1982) developed a strategy for upper elementary age children that focuses on the main ideas in a passage. After instructing the students in finding main ideas, teach them to ask themselves the following questions:

Step 1: Why am I studying this passage?
Step 2: Find the main ideas and underline them
Step 3: Think of a question about the main idea
Step 4: Write the question in the margin
Step 5: Learn the answer to the question
Step 6: Always look back at the previous questions and answers to see how they relate to each other.

Rooney (1988) detailed a system for producing study cards which combines self-questioning and the comprehension strategies. The study cards can be used to review material prior to taking a test. Students read the subtitles and paragraphs under the subtitle. On separate index cards, they write important vocabulary, dates, names, etc. Next, the students go back and turn the subtitles into questions, write these questions on the index card that has the correct answer on it. This procedure is repeated until a set of study cards has been produced that covers all of the material. These cards can now be used to self question using both the main ideas and the answers as questions.

FLIP is a strategy developed by Schumm and Mangrum (1991) to assist secondary students in examining their reading assignments and developing appropriate plans of action. It is similar to Multipass and SQ3R in that it requires students to make several passes through the material for specific purposes. Its uniqueness comes from the evaluative component that requires the reader to evaluate both text-based factors such as friendliness and language difficulty and reader based factors such as prior knowledge and interest. This component helps the reader become more aware of reader issues that impact comprehension and develop a plan for dealing with "less friendly" material.

SOS, a vocabulary strategy was developed by Miller (1985). The acronym stands for Search, Operate and Study and the purpose of the strategy is to facilitate the mastery of content material that has a focus on specific vocabulary found in science and computer courses. The process is similar to other reading comprehension strategies. It differs in that it requires the student to record the material in a specific format which results in an outline that places the content specific vocabulary in context. The student Searches through the chapter for vocabulary by reading the title, introduction, summary, headings, subheadings, charts and graphs and questions. As vocabulary words are encountered, they are recorded with the page number beside them. The second pass through the material is the Operate step in which the student records the definition of the words and gives examples. When these two steps are completed, the student has a chapter outline that focuses on the vocabulary. The final step is to Study the vocabulary words and their meanings using the Study process.

Nolan, Alley and Clark (1980) developed another Self Questioning Strategy at the Kansas Institute for Learning Disabilities. The students read the title and ask "Wh" questions. They then read the selection to answer their questions.

Conclusion

Teachers in rural settings are faced with the problem of determining the most effective adaptation approach to use with their students. This discussion must be based on the specific strengths and weaknesses of the students, as well as the teacher's personality and teaching style. Martens, Peterson, Witt and Cirone (1986) identified treatment acceptability as the critical factor in the strategy choice. Treatment acceptability refers to the case of implementation. Reynolds and Salend (1990) suggested that teachers should address the following questions before determining the instructional strategies to be used:

1. What are the students' strengths and weaknesses?
2. Given these strengths and weaknesses, are the proposed strategies likely to be effective?
3. How much time is involved in developing the implementing the strategy?
4. What impact does the presentation mode have on the students' performance and teacher's style?
5. How does the response mode impact the students' performance and teacher's style?
6. Is the strategy consistent with course requirements?
7. What is the impact of the strategy on the targeted student and other students?

With the number of developmentally disabled students increasing in rural settings, rural educators will find that adapting textbooks to meet the literacy needs of their special students is a necessary task. Text modifications, instructional modifications and student generated learning strategies are effective and inexpensive methods for these educators to use to accommodate the special needs students in their classrooms and to combat illiteracy.

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ACADEMIC ALLIANCES IN HUMANITIES

DESCRIPTION OF PROGRAM

Arkansas supports a statewide academic alliances network in the humanities. Academic alliances are faculty collaboratives established by school and college teachers in the same discipline to promote ongoing professional development. As local groups of professionals, alliances meet regularly to work toward common objectives. Continued development of the Arkansas network of humanities alliances has these objectives: (1) to strengthen teaching at all levels of the education system in the humanities disciplines; (2) to improve learning in these disciplines; (3) to foster lasting professional relationships at the local level between school and college faculty in the humanities, and (4) to provide ongoing support for established humanities alliances.

Alliances in specific humanities disciplines have been established in five regions of Arkansas: Central Arkansas, The Northeast and Northwest, the Southeast and Southwest. Thus the rural needs of the State of Arkansas are addressed. New alliances build on the work begun in 1990; the Arkansas Network of Academic Alliances has established sixty alliances including math and science since March 1990, including 20 humanities alliances (10 from 1991, 10 new in 1992 and 10 are in the budding stage). The Humanities Coordinator has established a pace of ten new alliances a year and maintaining ten from the past year; this should be reasonable to expect to be continued in 1993.

Alliances have been established in Arkansas where the presence of regional educational cooperatives have expressed interest in and support for the academic alliances concept. Senior staff of these cooperatives have participated in planning activities and alliance workshops have taken place. Funding supported these activities: (1) regional workshops for humanities faculty to create new alliances; (2) support for teacher participants recruited into new alliances during the project year; (3) technical assistance and support services for these newly-created alliances.

The principal project activity is continued support of a statewide humanities alliances project director. This person facilitates the development of local alliances by conducting additional faculty surveys, organizing workshops and conferences, providing ongoing technical support to newly-organized alliance and improving public awareness of humanities alliances through newsletters and other methods of communication. The humanities alliances coordinator is a half-time staff person, housed at Henderson State University, with administrative support from Henderson State University, financial and technical assistance from the project advisor at the Arkansas Department of Higher Education. Henderson provides in-kind services in the form of an on-campus office, half-time clerical support and related administrative assistance. Dr. Robert Steinmiller, Director of Retention and assistant professor of English and speech facilitates the development of local alliances by means presented above.

Project Activities Proposed for the 1993: The humanities project director for the Arkansas Network of Academic Alliances will accomplish the objectives through continuation of the following activities:

1. Organize regional workshops and provide technical assistance to establish new humanities alliances and maintain established alliances.
2. Attend, and provide follow-up and logistical support for meetings of both existing and new local alliances and projects which meet goals identified in this proposal.
3. Continue operation and expansion of a comprehensive statewide database of alliances and alliance members. (This database serves as the distribution list for an alliances newsletter as well as individual alliance meeting announcements.)
4. Publication and distribution of an alliance newsletter to communicate with alliance members and potential participants; the newsletter is funded by another source, but the humanities coordinator would be co-editor of this publication, which also would be used to disseminate information on humanities alliance activities to education policy-makers and to humanities scholars not yet involved in alliances.
5. Contact Chambers of Commerce, business and industry, and professional societies, to become involved in humanities alliances in their local areas.
6. Conduct team inservice for local alliances
7. Provide follow-up and logistical support for such community meetings as requested by the local alliance
8. Increase efforts to identify schools, school districts and institutions of higher education with students or teachers from under-represented or under-served populations. Past project activities have included participation by teachers from under-served or under-represented groups, but representation from these groups remains low. Special emphasis will be placed upon alliances in the Delta region. The director of the Teach for America program has expressed interest in becoming involved in the alliance movement.
9. Again, attend professional meetings of humanities groups, especially the November meetings in Little Rock of the Area Education Association.

Major project activities focus on continued recruitment of additional alliance participants in the five regions of Arkansas. Related efforts are made to continue improvement of the visibility of school-college collaboration as an integral part of educational reform in Arkansas. This includes expansion of the project to additional educational cooperative service areas, to other school districts not currently served, and to colleges and universities whose faculty have not yet been involved in alliance projects.

The yearly project culminates with a statewide alliances meeting. All alliance members from across the state are invited to attend this meeting. The purpose of this meeting is two fold. First, successful alliance projects from the year are showcased with time provided for discussion between the alliances. The second purpose is to present concepts building are begun at the statewide leaders meeting conducted earlier in the year. In 1992, Dr. Bo Thomas conducted a workshop on team building that made use of research that he and his colleague Dr. Robert Fisher have conducted.

Humanities Content

The Humanities disciplines are central to the concept of a statewide alliance network in Arkansas. Each alliance is discipline-specific, with members drawn from local schools and colleges. Project activities are designed to promote the creation of these alliances and provide appropriate technical assistance. The agenda and activities of each local alliance can be expected to focus their attention on issues related to teaching and learning in these disciplines.

A number of successful humanities alliances now exist in Arkansas and are closely related to the project. The Southwest Arkansas Foreign Language Alliance, based at Southern Arkansas University in Magnolia and the Western Arkansas Foreign Language Alliance, based at Westark Community College in Fort Smith are good examples of how alliances are formed and work for the benefit of humanities scholars. At the University of Arkansas at Monticello, the history academic alliance also demonstrates the strength and vitality of the alliance concept. This alliance is widely recognized as one of the strongest and most successful alliances in the United States.

Principal scholars

A large diverse population of scholars is providing individual energy, effort and interest to give direction to the project. The data base includes 1975 names of persons in humanities, math and science, The review of alliances give an indication of the role and scope of humanities scholars in the project.

Project planning has involved a wide range of persons at national, state and local levels, many of whom are humanities professionals: Dr. Paula Bagasao, Director of the National Project in Support of Academic Alliances of the American Association for Higher Education who provided planning guidance and technical assistance on-site, in Arkansas; Dr. Jane Landers, Director of the national History Teaching Alliance based at the University of Florida, Dr. Ellen Silber, director of the national Clearinghouse on Language and Linguistics who met with the project advisor and two of the foreign languages alliances in Arkansas; Professor Clara Krug of Georgia Southern University, one of the early organizers of the foreign languages alliance networks in that state.

At the state level, the Arkansas Network of Academic Alliances is a joint project of the State Boards of Education and Higher Education, with the direct involvement and support of Governor Clinton's education adviser. Dr. Burton Elliott, Director of the state Department of Education, and Dr. Diane Gilleland, Director of the state Department of Higher Education, have committed staff and financial resources to this project.

The review of local alliances later indicates the variety of persons involved in academic alliances. These humanities scholars and teachers provide guidance and direction to the project. Their needs and interests help determine the agenda for the project director; statewide activities involve these humanities teachers in planning sessions, evaluation of project actions and requests for guidance on future directions.

Audience Served by this Project

All Arkansas school and college humanities faculty comprise the target audience for this project. In addition, direct and indirect beneficiaries of project activities include the students of alliance participants and their professional colleagues. Other parties who will be served include those concerned about professional development for humanities scholars and teachers at all levels of the education systems; administrators, board members and other humanists.

An important by-product of alliance-building is greater visibility for the humanities in the local community as business leaders, parents and public officials become aware of this collaboration. Nonetheless, the chief beneficiaries of academic alliances are those who join in these endeavors. Alliances are "communities of inquiry" at the local level whose participants determine the direction and success of this effort. The statewide network project is designed as a closely-related set of activities to facilitate creation and maintenance of these professional relationships.

The target audience participates in the planning of this project. The grassroots nature of alliances presumes that alliances set goals and objectives, form a steering committee, maintain membership and provide a timeline and calendar for events. Empowerment of educators and scholars and mutual benefit of school/college teambuilding are essential to planning for the project.

Project Publicity

The Arkansas Network of Academic Alliances is a high-visibility activity because of the sponsorship of the two state education boards and the interest of Governor Clinton. Publicity on project activities has come through a regular newsletter and alliance directory, press releases when appropriate, recruiting surveys in untapped areas of the state, and from participation of project staff in professional meetings. As one of only three states building a statewide network of faculty collaboratives (New Jersey and Tennessee), project staff have been advisers to other states, reviewed alliance grant proposals to a national foundation, and served as panelists at the American Association for Higher Education national conference on collaboration in 1991 and Alliance Advocates session at the 1992 conference. All of these activities provide visibility and publicity for Arkansas alliance building.

Evaluation Plan for Project Performance

Evaluation of the humanities academic alliances project focuses on achievement of project goals. Since the alliance project has specific numeric goals in terms of alliances created, participants recruited, and assistance provided to local groups, evaluation will be based on these objectives and the activities undertaken to attain them.

The project anticipates creation of ten new humanities alliances in Arkansas during the grant period. To evaluate performance, AHC will be provided with the member, locations and leaders of each alliance, the member of alliance participants, and a description of alliance activities at each location. Regular updates will assess progress toward the alliance creation goal. Evaluation measures will include the number and humanities discipline of project participants, teacher survey results and workshop attendance rosters. Related activities such as the alliance newsletter, mailings and requests for information, are be documented in regular project reports to the funding agency.

The project component related to financial assistance for local alliances are evaluated in two ways. First, recipients and funded activities are identified in regular reports. Further evaluation include review of each local alliance's membership and activities: humanities teachers recruited into the alliance, meetings held, and projects undertaken by the assisted local alliance.

The project advisor consults with the project director of humanities and the coordinator of math and science alliances also housed at Henderson State University to assure continuity of effort; both administrators fall under the supervision of the Academic Vice President of Henderson State University. Evaluation of the director includes regular contact with those involved in project activities, attendance at workshops or other meetings, review of project calendars and of project-related expenditures, and regular meetings between the director and the advisor.

Evaluation Committee

The project evaluation committee is composed of Dr. John Short, University of Arkansas at Monticello; Professor Pat Roach, Arkansas Tech University; Professor Gisele Souter, Southern Arkansas University; and one member each from the State Boards of Education and Higher Education. General oversight of the Alliances Network project has been exercised by the Joint Liaison Committee of the two state education boards, a working group which meets quarterly. For purposes of this project, Dr. H.D. Luck, Chair of the State Board of Higher Education, and Ms Elaine Scott, Member of the State Board of Education, have served as the designated members from the two boards to evaluate the project.

Responsibilities

Funds and fund expenditures are disbursed and accounted for in compliance with state auditing procedures. The project director is responsible for organization of project activities. Regular written reports are made to the director by the network coordinator for humanities alliances. Regular reports are also made to the Joint Liaison Committee of the State Boards of Education and Higher Education.

REVIEW OF ALLIANCES BY ALLIANCE

FOREIGN LANGUAGE ALLIANCES

LANGULLA AREA LANGUAGE ALLIANCE (LALA): Tom and Janette Arnhardt, teachers at Forrest City High School and East Arkansas Community College, were catalysts for this alliance that touches on the Arkansas rural delta areas. They benefitted from the Leaders' Meeting as they prepared for a general interest meeting October 20, 1992, following a steering committee meeting in the spring of 1992. Teachers of French, Spanish, and Japanese were present. This alliance represented collaboration with the Arkansas Department of Education, the Great Rivers Educational Cooperative, faculty from Forrest City High School, East Arkansas Community College, and schools in Crittenden, West Memphis, Lee, Monroe, Phillips, and St. Francis counties. This also includes Teach for America" participants, a national teacher corps program that is housed on the Phillips Community College campus.

SOUTH ARKANSAS FOREIGN LANGUAGE ALLIANCE (SAFLA): Giselle Souter, Professor of Foreign Language at Southern Arkansas University has continued to be a guiding light for a model academic alliance. She has an active steering committee that often meets in members' homes with potluck meals sharing foreign dishes and recipes. Workshops in 1992 included cooperative learning. A big project evolved from interest of several teachers who organized a Southwest Arkansas foreign language festival.

WEST ARKANSAS FOREIGN LANGUAGE ALLIANCE (WAFLA): The West Arkansas Foreign Language Alliance has held a number of alliance sessions since forming on December 4, 1990. Nancy Zechiedrich, a foreign language teacher brought twenty-six participants together on the Westark Community College campus to organize WAFLA. A steering committee met in advance of alliance sessions to assure quality meetings. This alliance was highlighted at the 1991 Grand Alliance meeting with the student-led foreign dance troop. The alliance has had meetings where language educators met together in language specific groups to work on learning activities and games that could be used in the classroom. They have met in potluck lunch meetings featuring a variety of French, German, Latin, and Spanish foods.

LANGUAGE ARTS ALLIANCES

WESTARK ENGLISH ALLIANCE: Tom Walton, English teacher at Westark Community College, attended the fall 1992 leaders' meeting to prepare for the establishment of this alliance. They have formed and since created a newsletter Motivate to unite their membership to its membership. Interest in alliances was fostered by the Branch Area Educational Cooperative in 1991.

WESTARK JOURNALISM ALLIANCE: This is an alliance in the forming stage and has evolved as an outgrowth of the Westark English Alliance.

WEST ARKANSAS SPEECH ALLIANCE: Alliances were introduced at the annual Arkansas Speech Communication Association. Speech teachers from Fort Smith Northside High School, Southside High School and Westark Community College are working together to form an alliance. They are drawing from the success of the Westark English Alliance.

PERFORMING ARTS ALLIANCES

ALLIANCE FOR THE VISUAL AND PERFORMING ARTS (AVPA): Thirteen members from the DeQueen-Mena Educational Cooperative service area met and this focus group reassembled to elect officers, plan future meetings and discuss projects. A logo for future materials and publicity was designed, and Professor Jerry Poole demonstrated watercolor use. The alliance sponsored a performance and visual display program during the August co-op in-service meeting. Charlotte Cobb, chair of the alliance, believes the performing arts are important teaching aides in academic subject areas. AVPA was a resource for other teachers to use this approach.

BRADFORD ART ALLIANCE: This interest group evolved from the Mills Area Social Science alliance. School faculty saw the benefit of college collaboration extend to the art discipline.

EL DORADO MUSIC ALLIANCE: Francis Kuykendall, Inservice Coordinator in El Dorado, hosted an interest meeting in alliances on August 26, 1992 inservice for the El Dorado Schools. From this, a new alliance came into existence; Elaine Allen, coordinator of music in the district, expressed interest in alliances and attended the leaders meeting on September 11 and planned a general interest meeting including faculty from South Arkansas Community College, Barton Middle school, Arkansas High School, Texarkana Community College, Magnolia High School, Fairview High School and Southern Arkansas University.

SOCIAL STUDIES ALLIANCES

ARKANSAS GEOGRAPHIC ALLIANCE: Jerry Hansen at the University of Arkansas at Little Rock has led the Arkansas Geographic Alliance as an independent and viable alliance that is a model for what can be done with alliances. This alliance conducted the Arkansas Geographic Alliance 1992 summer institute on the campus of Ouachita Baptist University, utilizing university faculty from Fayetteville and Conway as well as school faculty from Arkadelphia. They also sponsored the 1992 geography essay contest for fifth through seventh grade students, as well as the December National Geographic Awareness Week.

CENTRAL ARKANSAS SOCIAL SCIENCE ALLIANCE: Dr. Selma Hobby and Rosemary Brewer are leaders working to establish a social science alliance connecting Little Rock schools and the University of Arkansas in Little Rock.

HOPE AREA SOCIAL SCIENCE ALLIANCE Janice Harrison has expressed interest in developing this alliance as an outgrowth of the South Arkansas Social Science Alliances; she was a presenter at the Woodward Institute in 1992.

MILLS AREA SOCIAL SCIENCE ALLIANCE: This alliance came into formation after a meeting at Harding University conducted by the Wilber Mills Cooperative on September 28, 1992 that included social studies faculty and administrators from ASU/Beebe, Harding University, Harding Academy and public schools. Dr. Pat Roach, of Arkansas Tech provided support, and three members attended the leadership meeting.

PARIS AREA SOCIAL SCIENCE ALLIANCE: Middle school interest is being cultivated by this alliance. The alliance created a four meeting plan that includes university faculty from liberal arts and education and the public schools, with particular focus on Paris middle school teachers due to their centrality in social studies educational reform in the state. Dr. Pat Roach is a well respected source of state-wide support in the social sciences and president of the Arkansas Council on Social Studies.

SOUTH ARKANSAS SOCIAL SCIENCE ALLIANCE (SASSA): This alliance brought faculty kindergarten to college together to help plan the Arkansas Council on Social Studies regional meeting in 1992. The alliance also presented an Evening in Russia meeting with a student guest speaker regarding an exchange program, as well as a university faculty member who was a guest scholar invited to Russia. This alliance had members active in the 1992 C. Vann Woodward Institute.

SOUTHWEST ARKANSAS SOCIAL STUDIES ALLIANCE (SWASSA): This alliance took form in 1992 under the direction of Dr. Mary Hamilton of Southern Arkansas University. They conducted a regional meeting that brought in presenters from the Arkansas Historical Restoration for the benefit of school teachers in the region.

SOUTHEAST ARKANSAS HISTORY TEACHING ALLIANCE (SEAHTA): Dr. John Short, Professor at The University of Arkansas at Montecello, has been a model of alliance leadership. His alliance has taken teachers to West Africa, Egypt and Israel. To celebrate Columbus, the alliance conducted an October conference.

WOODWARD INSTITUTE ALLIANCE: This institute under the direction of Dr. John Graves, Henderson State University, evolved into an alliance. The institute was supported by publicity by the state alliance network, and drew participants form other alliances; this networking proved to be mutually beneficial.

WHOLE LANGUAGE ALLIANCES

ARKANSANS FOR WHOLE LANGUAGE - STUTTGART

Twenty-five teachers gathered together to model after other alliances presented at the Arkansas State Reading Council state meeting. They are involved in changing teaching basal reading to whole language; their concern is to also be accountable for testing.

CENTRAL ARKANSAS ALLIANCE FOR WHOLE LITERACY Diane Taylor, Little Rock Public Schools, and Linda Dorn, University of Arkansas at Little Rock, after attending a leadership meeting, presented a detailed four page plan including goals, time lines, and philosophy. They are pursuing a literacy approach that incorporates a broader scholarly base as an outgrowth of whole language concepts. Our Academic Alliances Network supportive of the philosophical exploration of whole language.

CREATIVE LEARNING, AN ARKANSAS WHOLE LANGUAGE ALLIANCE

Rita Briner, Nevada Elementary, worked individual leaders training to assist in establishing a new alliance in the Hope area. The meeting was productive and resulted in an initial meeting of university faculty from Southern Arkansas University and school teachers from the surrounding counties.

NORTHWEST ARKANSAS WHOLE LANGUAGE ALLIANCE: This has been a very active and large alliance in Springdale Arkansas that saw 140 persons attend the initial meeting. Faculty from the University of Arkansas in Fayetteville and Martha Simpson of Happy Hollow School have made great use of alliance support in 1992. Alliances supported a major model program that brought to the Springdale area teacher from the Perryville School District.

Northwest Arkansas Alliances: Westark Community College, Arkansas Tech, and Western Arkansas Educational School Cooperative in cooperation with the Arkansas Network of Academic Alliances ran a workshop that generated interest in the following alliances: Media Library Alliance, Art Alliance, Language Arts/English Alliances (this is now Westark English Alliance); Social Studies/History Alliance; Foreign Language Alliance (in addition to Westark Foreign Language Alliance; Music Alliance; Business Alliance; Counseling Alliance; Special Education Alliance; and a Vocational Alliance.

OTHER OUTCOMES OF PROJECT

DATA BASE: A major database with 1975 names is being maintained to facilitate communication with alliance members.

GRAND ALLIANCE MEETING: A statewide assembly of alliance members is conducted to share alliance concepts and provide continuing support by the alliance leaders.

LEADERS MEETING: These are excellent opportunities to bring potential humanities contacts in touch with established alliance leaders. Yearly goals and projects are established; leadership skills are developed.

NEWSLETTER: Alliance newsletters are published and distributed quarterly. Recipients include all school and college faculty who have joined Arkansas alliances as well as all survey respondents. The September 1992 newsletter incorporated response cards for members to check the information that is in the Arkansas Network of Academic Alliance data base.

NOVEMBER MEETINGS OF THE ARKANSAS EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION: The Humanities project director is present in Little Rock during the November period when educational meetings are traditionally held.

RESOURCE BOOK This booklet of information is an essential tool for members and leaders to access information on alliances.

Conclusion

This project has been a positive force in uniting higher education and school faculties. In rural settings, resources are made available to school teachers and networks are formed.

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Rural Necessity as the Mother of Invention:

Using Collaboration to Extend Services for Autism and Low-Incidence Handicaps

Introduction

Students with low-incidence handicaps are typically difficult to adequately serve in rural school districts. Rotatori and O'Connor (1987) note that in urban areas, "adequate numbers of low-incidence handicapped children typically allow students to be clustered for services or for a specialist to be hired." In rural areas, where low-incidence handicapped children may be scattered over a wide geographic area, it becomes much more difficult to "cluster" these children to provide adequate services. Helge (1984) also confirms this difficulty of providing adequate services to the rural low-incidence handicapped students. One such low-incidence type of handicap which meets with multiple problems in rural service delivery is autism. Autism is a syndrome of symptoms that usually appears in early childhood, most often before 30 months of age. It's considered low-incidence and occurs in approximately 1 in 1,000 people. Many of the symptoms vary in severity from one individual with autism to another. But, by and large most will have impairments in cognitive learning, social interactions, verbal and nonverbal communication, their limited repertoire of activities/interests and behavioral control (Dalrymple, 1985). Some of the special services that may be needed for students with autism include: Early Intervention; Special Education Classes; Integrated Education Programs; Language Development Specialist; Medical Services; Speech Therapy; Physical Therapy; Occupational Therapy; Behavioral Specialist; Adaptive Physical Education; Vocational Specialists; Leisure-Recreational Specialists; Individual Counseling; Nutrition Specialist; School Nurse; Respite; and Residential Personnel. With such numerous potential service needs for a rare type of handicap, it's apparent that the average rural school system will not be able to provide full services for individuals with autism. Consequently, it's imperative to look for alternative service delivery methods. One alternative approach is to use collaboration to gain some of these sparse services for low-incidence handicapped students such as those with autism.

The Problems of Rural Service Delivery for Low-Incidence Disabilities

The term "low-incidence" refers to those handicaps which occur in low numbers or are sparse in occurrence. The term "rural" also connotes "sparsity" in the density of population within a geographic area. When these two terms are combined in the phrase "rural service delivery for low-incidence disabilities," it's fairly clear that there will be problems in serving rural students with low-incidence disabilities. Some of the problems identified in serving any special needs student are included in the following rank-ordered listing compiled by Helge (1984a) as a result of a 1983 telephone survey of 200 rural special education administrators in all fifty states.

Rank Ordered Problems in Serving Rural Students with Disabilities

1. Funding inadequacies
2. Difficulties recruiting qualified staff
3. Difficulties retaining qualified staff
4. Transportation inadequacies
5. Providing services to low-incidence disabilities
6. Need for staff development
7. Resistance to change
8. Providing support services
9. Negative attitudes of school personnel and communities toward students with disabilities
10. Long distances between schools and services
11. Involving parents
12. Professional isolation
13. Climatic problems/marginal roads
14. Problems of geographic terrain
15. Cultural differences
16. Difficulties in serving transient populations
17. Post-high school services
18. Inadequate facilities
19. Foster care inadequacies
20. Planning because of sporadic economies/populations
21. Interagency collaboration
22. Housing inadequacies

Within this preceding rank-ordered list of 22 identified problems encountered in rural special education delivery the top five deal with funding, staffing, transportation and providing services to low-incidence disabilities. The majority (52%) of special education administration respondents perceived their school districts faced major problems in providing services for individuals with low-incidence disabilities. Obviously, serving persons with the low-incidence disability of autism in rural areas is a major problem.

Helge (1984b) points out that providing special services for persons with low-incidence disabilities carries its own unique problems in rural areas. She notes that programs for the small number of persons affected are not only costly but also difficult to implement logistically. This phenomena also creates a situation where limited service delivery models are feasible or available for these low-incidence disabilities. Helge (1984b) also cites the following barriers in providing special services for persons with low-incidence disabilities: population sparsity; distance from where services are provided to where a student lives; weather; language; cultural differences; family lifestyle and economics; and past history of special education services delivered in a school district. Berkeley and Ludlow (1991) add to the list of problems by calling attention not only to the availability of services but also to the quality of services. They note that rural voids in parent participation, availability of technical resources, per child resource allocation and program evaluation may lead to reduced quality of services for special needs students. Thus, when providing services for low-incidence disabilities such as autism, there is a plethora of barriers and difficulties facing rural school districts and rural families.

The Problems of Rural Service Delivery for Persons with Autism

Autism is a low-incidence disability that may further add to the dilemma for appropriate service delivery by rural school districts. Autism has been defined as a developmental disability usually appearing in early childhood before 30 months of age. It's considered low-incidence, occurring in approximately 15 in every 10,000 births. It occurs four times as much among males than females. The symptoms of autism can be found in the following listing developed by the Autism Society of America (1990):

- Abnormal responses to sensations. Any one or a combination of the following sensations may be affected; sight, hearing, touch, pain, balance, smell, taste, and the way a child holds his/her body.

- Absence of or delays in speech and language

- Abnormal ways of relating to people, objects, places or events

- Unusual ways of thinking.

Gotera, Johnson and Plew (1987) have grouped the symptoms of autism into the following three categories: impairment in reciprocal social interaction; impairment in ability to communicate; and restricted repertoire of activities and interests. Autism has no known cause and no known cure. Its symptoms range from mild to severe. An estimated 80% of persons with autism also have mental retardation. An estimated 20% have epileptic seizures. Autism is considered a lifelong disability.

Based on the preceding information regarding autism symptoms, it would follow that numerous services will be needed to address the needs of persons with autism and to address the needs of their families. Since autism is considered a lifelong disability, the services needed may vary throughout the life cycle of the individual. The following figure provides an overview of potential services needed at various stages of the life cycle. (See Figure 1) Obviously, not all persons with autism will need all services. It will depend on the severity of the case of autism. Regardless of the severity, it is apparent that the potential service needs for persons with autism can be numerous. Most rural school districts would find it difficult to provide adequate services for persons with autism in all of the service areas listed in Figure #1.

Using Collaboration as a Solution for Rural Service Delivery for Low-Incidence Disabilities/Autism

The use of collaboratives are becoming more popular among rural districts faced with the task of providing educational services for low-incidence handicaps such as autism. Helge (1984b) notes that collaboratives of all types offer opportunities for cost savings, shared staff, shared programs, shared staff development, and shared resources. The use of collaboratives also can expand the spectrum and array of services offered for persons with low-incidence disabilities. Helge also notes that collaboratives can provide a common meeting ground for shared problems and shared decision making for all persons responsible for service provision to persons with low-incidence disabilities. In order to carry out this collaborative problem solving and shared decision making process for gaining better services for persons with low-incidence

Figure 1. Potential Services Needed by Persons with Autism Throughout the Life Cycle.

Services	Early Childhood (Ages 0 -5)	School Age (Age 6 - 18)	Adolescent to Young Adult (Ages 16-30)	Adult (Ages 21+)
Medical Assessment	X	X	X	X
Psychological Assessment	X	X		
Educational Assessment	X	X	X	
Early Intervention Services	X			
Educational Program	X	X	X	X
Case Management	X	X	X	X
Social Work Services	X	X	X	X
Legal Services	X	X	X	X
Personal Counseling Services		X	X	X
Family Counseling	X	X	X	X
Family Respite	X	X	X	
Occupational Therapy	X	X	X	X
Physical Therapy	X	X		
Behavior Specialist	X	X	X	X
Audiologist	X	X		
Speech/Language	X	X		
Vocational Services		X	X	X
Residential Services	X	X	X	X

disabilities such as autism, preservice and practicing teachers need to be taught how to collaborate for extended rural services. Project CREST (Collaboration for Rural Education Special Teachers) is a federal personnel training grand awarded by the Office of Special Education and Rehabilitation Services to the Special Education Department at Bowling Green State University. The purpose of Project CREST is to train preservice and inservice teachers in Appalachia to use collaboration skills. Project CREST promotes the use of the following collaborative problem solving model outlined by Friend and Cook (1992):

1. Identify the Problem/Need
2. Generate Potential Solutions
3. Evaluate Potential Solutions
4. Select the Solution
5. Implement the Solution
6. Evaluate the Outcome

Project CREST participants are also taught how to implement the following six stages of the collaboration process as outlined by West, Idol and Cannon (1989):

1. Entry/Goal Setting
2. Problem Identification
3. Intervention Recommendations
4. Implementation of Recommendations
5. Evaluation
6. Follow Up/Redesign

Throughout Project CREST training, participants are given the opportunity to practice their collaboration skills with a variety of actual student cases. For each case they take on, teachers are asked to develop a Plan of Action that includes the following information.

1. Objective of action to be taken
2. Strategies/Activities to carry out to meet the objective
3. Person(s) responsible for carrying out strategies
4. Completion time frame
5. Evaluation procedures to use.

If Project CREST participants were asked to use their collaboration skills in order to find appropriate services for a person with autism in a rural setting, they might be likely to engage in the following activities:

Case Scenario: Sean is a six year old male with diagnosed pervasive developmental delays/autism. He is verbal but language delayed. He shows signs of delays in motor development. He appears to have average intelligence. His major problem is in the behavioral area as he is a self-biter and a runner. He has been served for the past three years in a separate county program for mental retardation and developmental disabilities. Sean is presently being served in a rural public school program in a collaborative primary unit for multihandicapped. You are Sean's teacher. Where do you start?

> Sean's teacher might begin the process by identifying and prioritizing the problems in service delivery for Sean. Some of the most pressing problems in Sean's case are those in the behavioral areas (self-abusive biting and running). In generating potential solutions Sean's teacher might get together with other special teachers and/or with school administrators and/or school psychologists. The brainstorming could result in the following plan of action for Sean.

Plan of Action

Student's Name: Sean Murphy

Objective: To develop a program for decreasing Sean's running behaviors.

Strategies	Person(s) Responsible	Completion Time Frame	Evaluation Method/Criterion
1. Document Sean's running behaviors	Sean's teacher Sean's teachers aide Sean's parents	Jan, 1993	Completed Behavioral Observation Data Sheets
2. Collaborate with a behavioral specialist at a University or in a school system to arrive at a potential behavioral program for decreasing Sean's running behaviors	Sean's teacher Sean's case manager Sean's principal Sean's school psychologist Sean's parents	Feb, 1993	A written plan detailing the behavioral plan agreed upon by collaborators
3. Implement the behavioral program	Sean's teacher Teacher's aide Building Principal Sean's parents	March, 1993	Forms for charting Sean's running behaviors

This is just one sample of what might be included in the collaboration plan of action. Other activities that might be included would be to identify and secure respite services for Sean's parents or to identify a parent support group for them.

The ultimate goal of collaboration in our rural schools is to expand or enhance or increase services for all students. Collaboration can be an effective tool to expand services for all students including students with low-incidence disabilities such as autism.

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Career Development of Disabled Students in Rural Schools

The passage of PL 94-142 in 1975 focused the attention of the educational community on the special needs of disabled students in the schools. In the intervening 17 years, considerable effort has been invested in designing educational environments to meet these needs. Disabled students, however, are not a homogenous group. The condition of a particular disability interacts with other factors impacting students' lives, and so fitting all disabled students into one theoretical viewpoint is difficult. The purpose of this paper is to outline an approach to career development for the disabled student residing in a rural school system. This approach is theoretically broad based, developmental in its application, and designed to be delivered by school-based personnel.

Barriers to Rural Student's Career Development

It has long been noted that rural youth lag behind their urban counterparts in many aspects of vocational development (Marshall, 1972). Issues impinging upon persons in rural environments include isolation, diminished career maturity, poor self-concept, a lack of effective role models, a lack of access to part-time employment opportunities, and stereotyping. These issues are highlighted below.

Career Maturity. Career maturity has been operationally defined as the developmental level of a given student in relationship to expected career development (Super, 1957; Crites, 1969). Lee (1984) found that rural youth often display diminished career maturity. He further noted that the career maturity of rural youth cannot be classified homogeneously. Other factors, such as ethnicity and socio-economic status, impact the career maturity of students in rural settings.

Self Concept. Diminished self-concept is another factor that affects the career development of rural students (Super 1957; Lee, 1984). Bandura (1982) stated that opportunities for experiencing success are important in order for youth to gain the self-concept necessary for effective career development. Such opportunities are less available to those in rural environments.

Role Models. Role models are also particularly important in the career development of youth (Bandura, 1982). The opportunity to observe someone perform well in a particular career role can have a major influence on career development. The lack of exposure to appropriate role models in rural environments, especially in regard to disabled role models is injurious to the effective of career development of rural students.

Part-time employment. Part-time employment is another vehicle through which individuals gain valuable exposure to work and work opportunities (Herr & Cramer, 1992). For the rural student, access to part-time employment is problematic due to a lack of opportunities for such employment in the rural community and the often long commuting distances to larger towns and cities where such opportunities might be available. Rural students' opportunity for part-time employment is typically limited to fast food restaurants which have spread into smaller communities in recent years (Herr & Cramer, 1992). This exposes rural students to only the lowest level jobs, frying burgers and pushing cash register buttons, rather than satisfying careers.

Barriers to Disabled Students' Career Development

Like career development for non-disabled persons, authors have noted that structured career development activities for the disabled should begin as early as possible (Herr & Cramer, 1992). Intensive efforts to focus upon career development can and should continue throughout students' entire educational careers (Humes, 1982; Orzek, 1984; Levinson, 1984).

Many problems faced by disabled persons concerning career development are due to stereotyping and prejudice rather than being a direct result of the disability per se (Herr & Cramer, 1992). According to Fagan and Wallace (1979):

> The disability may be considered as the person's major, measurable characteristic that is judged deviant or discrepant from some acceptable norm. In contrast, however, the handicap may be considered as the barriers, demands, and general environment press placed on the person by various aspects of the environment, including other persons. (p. 216)

The handicap can then be seen more in terms of a social-emotional reality, not a physical one. The disability must dealt with medically, the handicap can be seen as an education or therapeutic problem.

Dunne, Elliott, and Carlsen (1981), as well as Lee (1984) have noted that stereotyping occurs more frequently in rural communities, especially concerning women and minorities. Lee also noted that educators were just as likely to perpetuate such stereotypes as other members of the rural community. The experience of the authors in rural school systems also tends to confirm this. Such stereotyping has also been found to occur toward disabled students (Lee, 1984; Ioracchini & Aboud, 1981) in rural environments. The stereotypes effectively serve to limit the students' career aspirations and development.

Humes (1982) reported several ways that disabled persons have been negatively stereotyped. He stated these in terms of several negative assumptions about the career development of disabled persons. First, he noted the perception that career development for the disabled is unsystematic, influenced by chance and that he or she should take what they can get. The second negative assumption is that career development for the disabled is not psychological because the disabled "do not have a psychological life" (p. 354). Another, and more pernicious, assumption is that career development is not important for the disabled student. The handicap itself overrides the individual's behavior. It is also falsely believed that career options for the disabled are severely limited, and that the career development of the disabled is arrested or retarded. Until such stereotypes are confronted in rural schools, optimal vocational development of the disabled will not be fully realized.

One assumption that Humes (1982) found to be true of the disabled is that the career development of disabled persons is stressful at all points. Moreover, every aspect of living for the disabled can be stressful, and the added stress of career decision making that must be faced by the disabled person can sometimes be overwhelming.

Role of the Educator

Isaacson (1986) stated that school counselors and teachers are examples of persons who can simultaneously exert great influence early in each person's life. Educators therefore play an important role in overcoming prejudicial barriers. Herr and Cramer (1992) note that school counselors are the primary persons to whom career development responsibilities are assigned in public schools. Counselors must build on the strengths and assets of the individual in helping the disabled student overcome the stress of daily living to support the career growth process.

A Model Career Development Program

Several models of career counseling for disabled persons have been offered. These programs have approached the topic of career development of disabled persons from a variety of theoretical orientations. Davis and Lofquist (1978) and Lynch and Maki (1981) predicated their approach on Maslow's (1968) needs hierarchy. Other researchers (e.g. Brolin & Gysbers, 1989; Happ & Altmaier, 1982; Loughead, 1989) have approached the problem using a trait and factor framework. Orzek (1984) bases her work with college-aged learning disabled on Chickering's (1969) theory of college student development. Rosenthal (1985) outlined an eclectic model of career development for disabled students that primarily focused on five specific components: (1) attention to cognitive and attention defects of the students; (2) reality testing; (3) a sense of self; (4) visual (imagery) and; (5) learned helplessness. Each of these approaches have shown effectiveness with various specific populations.

Elementary Years

The aspect of career development most important to focus on in elementary schools is career awareness. Students, as a regular part of their social studies curriculum can be taught the concept of work which should lead to an appreciation of the necessity of work in a productive society. An awareness of work during the primary grades can be incorporated into children's play activities. For disabled children, these activities can be structured around vocational situations that are realistic in terms of the students' overall career development. The focus should be on career opportunities which are readily understandable to the elementary student such as grocery store worker, custodial and building trades, and manufacturing -- in essence, the types of jobs that elementary students have the opportunity to see people perform. Older children can be given opportunities to participate in simulation activities sponsored by the school, such as a post office, bank, or store. Disabled students can be assigned activities commensurate with their ability levels (Johnson & Johnson, 1991). The major way of incorporating career awareness into the school experiences of elementary school pupils is to focus on what Hoyt (1977) called "infusion" -- the development of activities in all areas of the curriculum that focus on career applications. This approach is termed "comprehensive vocational education" in federal regulation.

Middle School Years

In the middle school, career exploration involves further simulation giving students opportunities to sample various occupations. For moderate, severe, and profoundly handicapped students all academic subjects should have a career focus. The idea of transition from the school setting to the world of work should begin to receive attention here. Skills prerequisite to employment such as interviewing, on the job dress and demeanor, job search strategies, and personal bookkeeping are most appropriately addressed at the middle school level.

An initial contact with the state vocational rehabilitation services should be made to facilitate the prompt receipt of services when students become eligible (at age 16). Ideally, disabled students would have the benefit both of curricular infusion of career ideas and a separate career orientation class.

High School Years

Special attention must be given to the vocational applications of the least restrictive environment concept. Alternatives of vocational placement for handicapped learning that can be provided either within the school or through contract with outside agencies include (in order from least restrictive to most restrictive) regular vocational education, adapted vocational education, special vocational education, individual vocational training, and work activity center services. Each of these options should be made available within the high school program for disabled students. With the exception of the final two options, most high schools could provide these career options on-site. Individual vocational training may require sending students to a special center for training and the work activity centers would be used only for severely disabled students. It should be noted that high school is seen as a time, for the non-college bound disabled, to experience vocational training designed for life long career placement. Academics should be specific vocational applications such as reading technical manuals, and vocation-related skills, such as the math skill needed to compute a repair estimate.

Cooperative efforts of the rural high school staff are essential. Special education teachers and vocation teachers in areas such as agriculture, shop, business and home economics should work together to provide the necessary skills for general occupational development. Vocational teachers in the rural schools have more responsibility to adapt their programs to the needs of the disabled than their urban colleagues since opportunities afforded by the school may be the only ones available in rural locations. In cases where the lower incidence of disabled students in the rural school make it impractical to provide specialized training programs, the services of a vocational educator become critical in teaching the disabled to meet the requirements of a career.

All eligible high school students should receive the services of vocational rehabilitation to complement the school's provision of services. Rehabilitation counselors are instrumental in seeking specialized training and placement into part-time employment. The goal to be achieved by high school graduation would be to place the non-college bound disabled into jobs that would allow those individuals to productively support themselves and enjoy a satisfying career (Marinoble, 1980). Successful cooperative efforts of school personnel and vocational rehabilitation would assist in this transition from school to adult life.

Conclusion

This paper has sought to describe the issues related to career development of disabled individuals in rural schools. It has outlined the barriers faced by the disabled as they pass through school and outline some ways to meet their career development needs. These methods will help to eliminate what Dahl (1982) has noted the limited access of the disabled to the job market. Together with the massive public relations efforts to educate the public concerning the disabled (Ibrahim & Herr, 1982), schools in the rural areas can effectively go far to over come these barriers.

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THE DROPOUT PROBLEM AS PERCEIVED BY SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGISTS AND ADMINISTRATORS

Some would claim that dropping out of school is a social as well as an educational problem, damaging the structure and framework of a democratic society by excluding certain children from education. Some schools still discharge their "bad apples" with relish (Fine, 1987). We have not come very far from the time when pregnant girls were expelled from school and not allowed to return. It seems as though the educational system can be used by school personnel to encourage or discourage dropping out of school. It appears that a better understanding of the beliefs of those making decisions about students at-risk for dropping out might help explain why the dropout problem is so persistent. What do school psychologist and administrators believe is at the root of the dropout problem?

Numerous studies have investigated the many perspectives of the dropout problem. The authors have been variously involved in some of this research. For example, Hyle, Bull, Salyer and Montgomery (1992) investigated the perceptions of superintendents and school principals; and Bull, McIntosh, McBee and Salyer (1992) investigated the priorities believed by school psychologists to be most crucial for the dropout problem. In each of these studies the focus question has been the definition of "the dropout" from the perspective of the kind of service provided. Each of the studies utilized the same instrument to gather data. Because of the similarity in research methodology, the purpose of the present study is to compare the perceptions of the two groups of school personnel regarding the dropout problem.

A recent review of the school psychology literature for studies related to the school dropout problem (McIntosh, Bull & Salyer, 1992) identified only seven articles. The larger review of literature revealed an existing data base on dropouts of 865 papers (Bull, Salyer, Montgomery, 1990). There are indications that administrators in the school environment, principals, superintendents, and central office administrators, have differing perceptions of the causes of the dropout problem (Montgomery, Bull, Hyle & Salyer, 1990; Salyer, Montgomery, Hyle & Bull, 1991). In addition, preliminary studies indicate that administrators from rural, urban or suburban areas have different perspectives about the reasons students are dropping out of school which may be related to their respective environments (Bull, Montgomery, Hyle, & Salyer 1991a, 1991b; Hyle, Bull, Salyer & Montgomery, 1990).

Method

Instrument

The instrument used in this study was created by Bull, Salyer & Montgomery (1990). The scale contained 42 items to which two Likert-like responses were made using a Strongly Agree to Strongly Disagree 5-point scale. One response required opinions about whether or not the item was a factor contributing to dropout and the other required the respondent to report whether or not enough research had been conducted to know how to resolve the problem. These items were created from a list of variables extracted from an extensive review of the literature. Over eight hundred abstracts were analyzed for the focus problem or resulting issue related to dropout. The list of variables were put into categories because they were conceptually similar in some way. The list was abstracted to represent the full range of reasons found dropout problems. Items were read by at least three researchers for clarity and representativeness, deleting redundant items. The resultant list was the 42 items used on the instrument.

Subjects: Administrators

The subjects for this section of the study were randomly selected principals (initial sample 650) and superintendents (N=650) drawn from Moody (1989). Thirteen hundred questionnaires were sent out. To improve the return rate two mail follow-ups were conducted after the initial mailout. A total of 933 questionnaires were returned. Of these, 891 were usable. This yielded a return rate of 71.8%. The sample contained 752 males and 119 females. They averaged 10.7 years in administration and 12.3 years in teaching. In terms of education, 417 held BA/BS degrees, 191 held MA/MS/MAT degrees and 234 held Specialist or Ph.D./Ed.D degrees. The schools, in terms of socioeconomic status were (when these data were reported) 19 upper class, 583 middle class and 121 lower class.

Subjects: School Psychology

The school psychology sample was composed of 326 school psychologists, 71 supervisors of school psychologists, and 44 coordinators of school psychological services who were listed in the Directory of Nationally Certified School Psychologists (NASP, 1989). This sample was part of a larger study reported by McIntosh, Bull and Salyer (1992) with a response rate of 57% following the initial survey and two mail follow-ups. As is typical in survey research, some respondents did not respond to all items; therefore, not all of the totals produce the same additives.

The sample was composed of 245 males and 199 females. Their education levels were as follows: 175 MS/MA, 158 specialist, 113 Ph.D./Ed.D. They were located in rural areas (n = 102), urban areas (n = 150) and suburban areas (n = 162).

Results

The scores from each of the items on the instrument were compared in three ways: across the two values of gender, across the two study groups by training area (school psychologist or school administrator) and across the three areas of respondent location of rural, urban and suburban. These comparisons were made using analyses of variance and are reported in Table 1. The reader will notice Table 1 includes the means for all of the items and for each comparison.

An examination of the overall means for the items show that the following causes are those items with which respondents most highly agreed to be a contribution to the dropout problem (rank ordered from high to low with the mean in parentheses):

dysfunctional/unstable family (1.66)

no hope of graduating (1.75)

substance abuse (1.84)

emotional problmes (1.94)

alienated from school (1.98)

parental problems (2.00)

illiterate (2.06)

student frustration (2.06)

victim of child abuse (2.12,)

truancy (2.12)

Whereas, the items that received the least agreement for contributing to the dropout problem are rank ordered as:

medical problems (3.60)

disctrimination (3.31)

no peer group (3.24)

peer violence (3.20)

too different from peer group (3.16)

ineligible to participate in sports (3.03)

1multicultural dehumanization (3.01).

When we look at mean differences by gender, we see that there are differences in one-half of the items (N=21). Of these, males think the following more likely to be related to dropout causes than females: no parental support, no community support, and living on his/her own. Females endorse the following more highly than males: boredom, frustration, emotional problems, conflicts with teachers, no hope of graduation, lack of non-college track, too old for peer group, illiterate, dysfunctional family, child abuse, poverty, crime, no day care, learning disabilities, discrimination, multicultural dehumanization, fail competency test and numerous family responsibilities.

The differences between school psychologists and school administrators are as follows: school administrators endorse the following as causes more strongly than do school psychologists: frustration, no community support, lack of non-college track, peer violence, learning disabilities, discrimination, and lack of daily attendance support. School psychologists pick the following causes of dropping out more frequently than do school administrators: need to support spouse/child, desire to earn money, conflict with teacher(s), and no parental support for education.

Differences were found by location in the following ways: conflict with teachers were a problem in rural than in suburban areas, no parental support (rural greater than suburban), too old for peer group (urban, greater than rural, suburban), illiterate (suburban greater than rural). In the rest of the items the suburban cell was higher than the others in the following cases: poverty, involved in crime, poverty, peer violence, learning disabilities, discrimination, dehumanized multiculturally.

Discussion

The value of the means overall reveals a belief from both groups that students may drop out of school because of reasons external to the school. At the same time, administrators and school psychologists perceive those dropout causes that are amenable to school influence are not thought to be the cause of the problem. This result, similar to perceptions described in other studies, is analogous to blaming the victim.

One of the most interesting findings of this study is the gender differences of opinion. Although one might predict, with stereotypical expectations, women to be supportive of the individual and men to be supportive of the institution, the differences may indicate such a trend. Males supported causes related to parental and community support. Females, on the other hand, were more likely to rate as relevant causes that resided in the treatment of the child, either educationally (such as boredom and frustration) or socially (such as emotional problems, conflict with teachers) or economically (such as poverty or discrimination). Further inspection of these data may indicate that the males are in the same group as the decision makers. The reluctance to view the dropout problem as one that can be influenced by the school system may affect how readily school programs implement programs that would effect student dropout.

The comparison between psychologists and administrators show administrators to favor those items that relate to family and community, rather than school-related items, with the exception of the lack of a daily attendance officer. School psychologists are more likely to believe the dropout problem is related to lack of money or parent support.

The comparison of rural, urban and suburban groups reveal little differences for the rural group of respondents. Although multiple problems emerge when we focus on the urban group, the one area that emerges with significance for rural areas is conflict with teachers. Perhaps this finding could be explained by a perception that rural students may leave school when they encounter difficulty with a teacher because the school may have fewer teacher choices, with a less transient faculty.

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Question	Total Mean	Female Mean n	Male Mean n	F prob F ratio	F_{int}	School Psych.	Admin.	F prob F ratio	Rural	Urban	Suburb	F prob F ratio
1. Boredom caused by undifferentiated instruction, teacher inflexibility, student giftedness, etc.	2.30	2.16 (342)*	2.37 (686)	.016 4.146	.023 3.103							
2. Frustration (for slow or unserved handicapped for whom education is too hard, instruction undifferentiated, teachers inflexible)	2.06	1.77 (345)	2.20 (680)	.000 12.614	.000 24.617	1.83 (543)	2.32 (482)	.000 31.589				
3. Pregnancy (and no active support to stay in school)	2.29											
4. Need to support spouse/child	2.93				.000 7.328	3.06 (540)	2.78 (473)	.002 9.735				
5. Medical problems (which make school success difficult, unlikely or less meaningful, e.g., terminal illness)	3.6											
6. Emotional problems (suicidal, depression, low self esteem, psychosis of various kinds)	1.94	1.77 (344)	2.02 (689)	.000 14.080	.000 6.007							
7. Desire to earn money	2.51				.000 6.139	2.65 (548)	2.35 (476)	.000 14.172				
8. Desire to get away from home	2.69											
9. Conflict(s) with school administration	2.77											
10. Conflict(s) with one or more teachers	2.68	2.60 (341)	2.72 (675)	.045 4.034		2.72 (544)	2.64 (472)	.024 5.128	2.58 (349)	2.66 (293)	2.81 (335)	.021 3.865

11 [illegible] ope graduating (failed too much already, educationally discouraged)	1	1 (343)	(682)	14.671	6.862							
12 No peer support for education (active peer pressure against continuing)	2.36											
13. No parent support for education (active parental pressure against continuing)	2.15	2.37 (344)	2.03 (688)	.000 13.556	.000 10.289	2.27 (550)	2.00 (482)	.020 5.407	2.00 (355)	2.10 (293)	2.35 (342)	.000 8.402
14. No community (cultural) support for education	2.72	2.80 (343)	2.68 (684)	.005 7.970	.001 5.317	2.63 (550)	2.82 (477)	.000 12.767	2.77 (353)	2.57 (294)	2.82 (341)	.029 3.553
15. Lack of non-college bound education (no vocational-technical or sbusiness track)	2.82	2.43 (341)	3.01 (682)	.000 51.521	.000 33.928	2.48 (548)	3.21 (475)	.000 13.177				
16 Substance abuse	1.84											
17 Being in special classes (no perceived reward in education)	2.92											
18 No peer group (especially gifted)	3.24											
19 Too old for peer group (e.g., special education students or those retained 1 or more years)	2.69	2.45 (344)	2.82 (684)	.000 20.257	.000 8.613				2.76 (353)	2.53 (295)	2.78 (341)	.016 4.158
20. Too different from peer group (e.g., physically handicapped or extremely gifted)	3.16											

21. Truancy (too many classes missed and hours of detention to face)	2.12											
22. Migrant family (missed too much to catch up)	2.46											
23. Illiterate (cannot read at a minimal level)	2.06	1.83 (345)	2.17 (681)	.000 20.980	.000 9.816				2.22 (348)	1.86 (294)	2.08 (344)	.000 8.498
24. Dysfunctional/ unstable family (causing stress of a variety of types)	1.66	1.58 (344)	1.71 (687)	.029 4.756	.023 3.203							
25. Victim of child abuse (physical, emotional, verbal, sexual)	2.07	1.94 (343)	2.14 (687)	.006 7.706	.008 3.974							
26. Poverty (e.g., does not dress appropriately -- does not "fit in")	2.49	2.42 (344)	2.52 (682)	.043 4.106	.013 3.637				2.58 (351)	2.38 (290)	2.53 (342)	.030 3.512
27. Involvement with crime	2.42	2.28 (341)	2.50 (680)	.001 10.490	.006 4.205				2.56 (349)	2.26 (288)	2.38 (344)	.001 7.101
28. No day care (for teens with children)	2.59	2.42 (342)	2.67 (684)	.002 9.607	.002 4.833				2.83 (350)	2.45 (292)	2.49 (341)	.000 11.583
29. Lack of teacher role models (e.g., minorities)	2.96											
30. Peer violence (perceived lack of safety in school)	3.20				.000 17.115	2.99 (547)	3.44 (473)	.000 34.252	3.35 (351)	2.98 (288)	3.27 (342)	.001 7.425
31. Learning disabilities (not adequately dealt with by schools)	2.76	2.43 (343)	2.93 (679)	.002 9.937	.000 16.283	2.57 (547)	2.98 (475)	.000 19.826	2.86 (349)	2.56 (291)	2.86 (342)	.009 4.737
32. Discrimination (particularly by teachers against minority students)	3.31	3.05 (344)	3.43 (681)	13.74		3.13 (549)	3.51 (476)	.001 10.876	3.49 (346)	3.08 (295)	3.33 (341)	.001 6.852

[illegible]3. [illegible]ersonal, cultural [illegible] linguistic dehumanization (no multicultural training for teachers)	3[illegible]	2[illegible] (345)	[illegible] (684)	[illegible] 7.196	[illegible] 5.067				[illegible].21 (349)	[illegible].79 (396)	2.99 (346)	.00 9.921
34. Failure to pass, or anticipation of failure on, minimum competency tests	2.67	2.54 (342)	2.73 (684)	.012 6.263		2.61 (533)	2.73 (456)	.034 2.910				
35. Lack of daily attendance support (no counselor, truant officer, or program to work in attendance)	2.62				11.67	2.44 (551)	2.83 (475)	.000 16.938				
36. Ineligible to participate in sports (where sports were a tie to keep them in school)	3.03											
37. Runaway	2.61											
38. Being in a foster home (and dropping out as a way to get out)	2.95											
39. Parental problems (divorce, unemployment, separation)	2.00				.000 6.741	2.09 (518)	1.85 (460)	.000 18.720				
40. Living on his/her own (not living with family or other responsible adults)	2.56	2.68 (343)	2.50 (682)	.001 10.858	.000 6.242							
41. Numerous home and family responsibilities (for a worker, for more money, to care for younger siblings, etc.)	2.51	2.46 (341)	2.53 (684)	.033 4.571								
42. Alienated from school	1.98											

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RURAL-BASED TECHNICAL EDUCATION: THE RIZAL TECHNOLOGICAL AND POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE CASE, STATUS AND PROSPECTS

TITLE OF PRESENTATION: Rural-Based Technical Education: The Rizal Technological and Polytechnic Institute Case, Status and Prospects

PURPOSE OF PRESENTATION

National recovery is the thrust of the Philippines today. As a developing country, the Philippines considers that its manpower determines the character and pace of its economic and social development. Thus, the government has given human resource development top priority. Schools are traditional agencies that can best carry out strategies for human resource development since they provide potent instrument that can transform society into a well-developed and educated institution.

The survey conducted by the Presidential Commission to survey Philippine Education (1980) revealed that the school system has been oriented to the lower and higher levels of the educational ladder. It has produced a largely literate but unskilled population and a large professional class. The development of middle manpower, that is, the skilled workers and industrial technicians, has been generally unattended to. On the other hand, there are more available job openings now for skilled technicians than professionals. This results to an imbalance in the manpower market. Figure 1 shows the industrial manpower profile obtaining in the Philippines today.

LEGEND:

________________ IDEAL

---------------- EXISTING IN THE PHILIPPINES

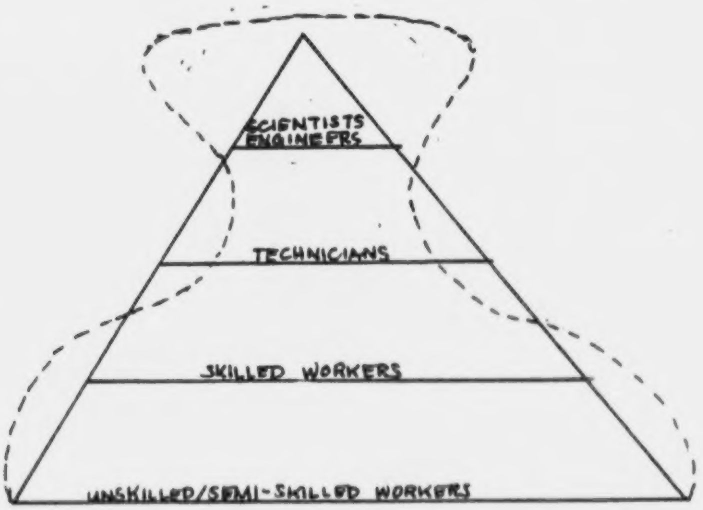

Figure 1.
Industrial Manpower Pyramid

Source:
Industrial Technician Program (Brochure)
MERALCO Foundation Institute

The ideal situation would be the existence of a broad base for unskilled and semi-skilled laborer. Up the pyramid ladder is the equally strong skilled workers followed by a big group of technicians. At the tip of the pyramid would be the professional engineers/scientists.

The existing situation in the Philippines is such that there is a glaring imbalance of the four categories of manpower. While there is a broad base for skilled and semi-skiled workers and tecnicians and an alarming great number of engineers.

The educational system is left with the serious responsibility of carrying out manpower training prerequisite to human resource development. To make vocational-technical programs prepare manpower in accordance with the needs of the country's development thrust and thereby ensuring wise investment towards economic growth is a great task. Every single institution under the educational system, in turn should give its share in the undertaking.

The Rizal Technological and Polytechnic Institute (RTPI) offered Technical Education Program as its contribution to the development and training of skilled workers. RTPI used to be a comprehensive type of high school where under one roof and one administration both academic and vocational technical courses are offered. It is premised on the assumption that the existence of the academic and vocational offerings in one institution would improve the quality of academic preparation and increase the attractiveness of both vocational and technical courses.

The offering of elective courses in Trade and Industrial Education on the secondary level and the availability of human and material resources coupled with the need led to the offering of Technical Education. Technical Education refers to the courses that are offered in the post-secondary level, ranging from one to three years of duration. The technical education curriculum usually contains such academic courses as languages, mathematics, social sciences, and physical sciences all of which have transfered credits to professional degree course. Emphasis, however, is placed on the development of manipulative proficiency and technical competence in specific occupational areas. Technical Education is sometimes loosely use to mean "technician education," in the Philippines.

This paper aims to present the status and prospects of a Technical Institution in the rural setting which hopefully can be of help to the school's clientile in particular and to the clientile in other similar areas in general.

OBJECTIVES OF THE PRESENTATION

The objectives of the presentation is to present the status of RTPI Technical Education Program and to identify possible prospects, specifically that of offering additional course which is Technical Agriculture with major areas of specialization in Associate in Agriculture, Associate in Forestry, Agricultural Cooperative Work, Agricultural Technology, Farm Administration, Corn Technology and Cereal Agronomy.

The proposed course aimed to achieve the following:

1. Respond effectively to changing needs and conditions in terms of innovative technologies in agriculture of Rizal Province in particular and of the nation in general.

2. Train technicians in preparation for the gainful employment and entrepreneurship.

3. Maximize use of human and material resources of Rizal Technological and Polytechnic Institute.

According to the survey conducted by the Department of Agriculture, Rizal Province (1991), majority of the agricultural workers are still using the traditional methods in Agriculture due to lack of awareness and perhaps due to absence of access to materials related to new innovations and technologies. Since the service area is mostly agricultural, then offering such course will be very beneficial to the clientele.

RURAL FOCUS

The paper is focused primarily on the rural folks who are interested in agriculture and those who cannot afford to take degree courses in the said area or in other areas. This could also be a way by which technical people in agriculture can be as productive as degree holders.

PRACTICAL APPLICATIONS

The Philippine archipelago has vast agricultural land, but a large portion of which has remained idle due to lack of knowledge and skills in modern agricultural innovations and technologies. As such there is a great possibility that this study will be replicated in other areas in the country and even in other countries.

DATA (OR THEORETICAL BASE) TO SUPPORT WHAT IS ADVOCATED

Rizal Technological and Polytechnic Institute is located in the eastern part of the province of rizal. With the integration of the 12 rich municipalities (see Fig. 2) in the Province per Presidential Decree No. 824 in 1975, Rizal is no longer what it used to be-- a premier province. As such, a strategy for human resource development should be evolved to uplift the life of the people in the remaining municipalities of the province. With the joint funding of the national and provincial governments, the RTPI enjoys the blessings which should benefit not only secondary school students but also high school graduates who cannot enrol in Metro Manila schools due to poverty, hence, the proposed two-

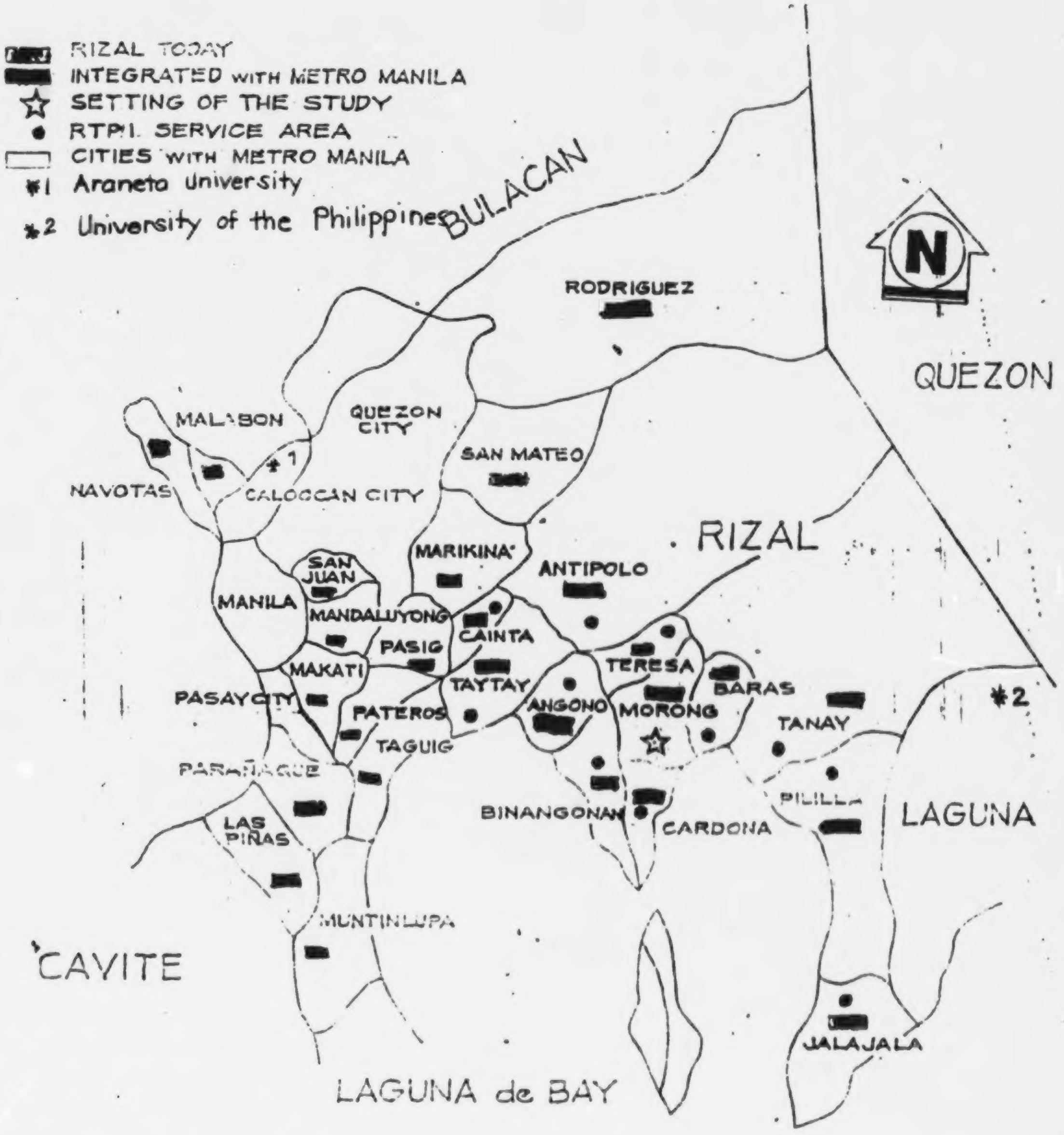
RIZAL TODAY
INTEGRATED WITH METRO MANILA
☆ SETTING OF THE STUDY
● RTPI. SERVICE AREA
CITIES WITH METRO MANILA
*1 Araneto university
*2 University of the Philippines
BULACAN
N
RODRIGUEZ
QUEZON
MALABON
QUEZON CITY
SAN MATEO
*1
NAVOTAS
CALOOCAN CITY
RIZAL
MARIKINA
SAN JUAN
ANTIPOLO
MANILA
MANDALUYONG
CAINTA
PASIG
TERESA
MAKATI
TAYTAY
BARAS
PASAY CITY
PATEROS
ANGONO
MORONG
*2
TANAY
TAGUIG
PARAÑAQUE
BINANGONAN
CARDONA
PILILLA
LAGUNA
LAS PIÑAS
MUNTINLUPA
CAVITE
JALAJALA
LAGUNA de BAY

Figure 2

MAP OF RIZAL

year secondary courses.

Records of RTPI, Morong, Rizal (1991) showed a decreasing percentage of students entering colleges and universities due to the rising cost of education in Manila. The nearest school to Morong offering post-secondary technical courses is Araneta University in Quezon, City and University of the Philippines in Los Banos, Laguna which is 48 and 70 km. away respectively. Considering that the monthly income of parents in the school's service area is a measly P2,000.00 a month, transportation expenses of students could be a drain to the low income families.

The following table shows the comparative cost of current bus fares from the service areas of the school to Morong, Quezon City and Laguna.

Table 1
Comparative Cost of Current Bus Fares

Municipalities	Fare to QC	Fare to Laguna	Fare to Morong
1. Angono *	P 15.00	P 36.00	P 6.00
2. Antipolo *	15.00	36.00	6.00
3. Baras *	24.50	46.50	1.50
4. Binangonan *	17.50	38.00	2.50
5. Cardona *	19.00	42.00	1.50
6. Cainta *	13.00	31.00	10.00
7. Jalajala *	28.00	22.50	10.50
8. Montalban	6.00	36.00	13.00
(9.) Morong *	23. 00	45.00	-
10. Pililla *	25.50	25.00	7.50
11. San Mateo	6.00	36.00	13.00
12. Tanay *	25.50	26.50	3.50
13. Taytay *	12.00	29.00	9.00
14. Teresa *	16.50	38.00	3.50

LEGEND: * - Towns within the service area of RTPI
(9) - Site of the RTPI, 12 of the 14 towns is being benefited by economy of travel, time and energy.
QC - Quezon City

Araneta University is situated in the greater Manila Area which is highly industrialized. Learning at AU is more on the theoretical side and less on application due to the unavailability of agricultural land within the vicinity of the school. This contradicts the theory of Congruence which states that effective vocational training shall take place only when there is congruity between the school learning experiences and industry employment experiences. Furthermore, it goes against the theory of Concreteness which is the strength of Technical Education.

On the other hand, University of the Philippines is not accessible since the place is very far from the service area.

At present, RTPI is operating within the following framework:

NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT GOALS	1. Alleviation of poverty; 2. Generation of more productive employment; 3. Promotion of equity and social justice; and 4. Attainment of sustainable economic growth.
MISSION STATEMENT	THE RIZAL TECHNOLOGICAL AND POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE aims to develop the full potential of individuals in academic and technological disciplines for a self-reliant, more productive and morally upright citizenry.
OBJECTIVES	1. Provide training that is efficient, effective and relevant to meet manpower needs. 2. Promote research and development in academic and technological disciplines. 3. Provide extension services in the improvement of the quality of life. 4. Provide training for gainful employment and entrepreneurship. 5. Maintain leadership training of teachers and administrators along academic and technological disciplines.
POLICIES	1. Democratize access to education 2. Create a human resource development center 3. Develop academic and technical skills

PLANS

1. Offer agri-business education, and entrepreneural development courses.
2. Strengthen linkage with industries and non-government agencies for on-the-job training and placement

PROGRAMS

Post Secondary Education
- One Year Certificate of Technology
- Two Year Certificate of Technology
- Three-Year Engineering Technology
- Short Term Course

PROJECTS

1. Values Education
2. Continuing Education
3. Staff Development
4. Faculty/Student Scholarships and Educational Assistance
5. Curriculum Development
6. Instructional Materials Bank
7. Computer Training
8. School-Based Drug Abuse Program
9. Book Bank
10. Print Media Development
11. Linkage with Innovation in Technology (INNOTECH), Japan Overseas Cooperation Volunteer (JOCV), Japan International Cooperating Agency (JICA), Manila Institute of Science and Technology (MIST), Technological University of the Philippines (TUP), National Manpower Youth Council (NMYC), Department of Trade and Industry (DTI), Department of Labor and Employment (DOLE), Rizal Chambers and Commerce Industry (RCCI) and other private/public agencies
12. Placement
13. Trade Testing Standard Program
14. Sports Development
15. Accreditation
16. Integrated Research Program
17. Community Outreach

PROSPECTS

Offering of additional relevant courses in Technical Agriculture

1. Associate in Agriculture
2. Associate in Forestry
3. Agricultural Cooperative Work
4. Agricultural Technology
5. Farm Administration
6. Corn Technology
7. Cereal Agronomy

The prospect of offering the aforementioned courses will enable the development of awareness and skill in utilizing modern tools and equipment brought about by modern innovations and technologies in agriculture.

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TEAM ASSESSMENT OF INFANTS IN THE RURAL SETTING

Assessment is a very integral part of an early intervention program. A full assessment that addresses the whole child must include information from as many sources as possible. These sources include interviews with parents to gather historical information, observations and the use of screening or testing tools to help establish informed clinical opinion. To get a true picture of the infants present ability and potential, much of the assessment needs to be done in the home (Bailey & Wolery, 1984). This poses particular challenges for early intervention teams working in the rural areas. The plan proposed here to help meet those challenges is one currently being implemented by an early intervention team that is part of the SoonerStart program. Many of the considerations and guidelines suggested throughout this plan were taken from the SoonerStart Policy and Procedures Manual (91) and the Protocol for Child Development And Child Guidance Specialists, SoonerStart Program Services (92).

SoonerStart is Oklahoma's Early Intervention Program, which is a collaborative interagency effort of the State Departments of Education, Health, Human Services and Mental Health. This program provides services to developmentally delayed infants from ages 0-3. The plans for this program began in 1986 as a result of PL 99-457. To qualify for this program, an infant must be delayed in the areas of physical development, cognition, communication, social/emotional and self-help skills. An infant may qualify by displaying a fifty percent delay in one of these areas or a twenty-five percent delay in two or more areas. The theory of this program is driven by the philosophy that being family centered and oriented allows for better opportunities to be successful when providing services to developmentally delayed infants. In an attempt to adhere to this philosophy and provide quality services the SoonerStart program is adapting the transdisciplinary approach (McCollom, Hughes, Woodruff, & McGonigel, 1989). Along with this attitude the SoonerStart program is a proponent of home based services that operates in a Parent-Infant Interaction Model (Affbeck, McGrade, McQueeney, & Allen, 1981).

The SoonerStart program currently serves approximately two thousand children statewide. The state is divided geographically into eleven regions. The team that this plan was derived from functions in north central Oklahoma and currently serves seventy-five children, with approximately fifty of them living the rural areas. This early intervention team consist of a regional coordinator, who is considered a program coordinator, a resource coordinator, who might also be called a case manager, a child development specialist, who also serves as lead clinician, a nurse, a speech pathologist, an occupational therapist, and a physical therapist. In the past two years members of this team have been involved in three hundred assessments. A large majority of them have taken place in rural homes. The families have the option of where and when the assessment takes place and currently ninety percent choose their home. The plan this team uses is a product of these experiences, reevaluating and restructuring, along with information provided through other teams in the state and national sources, with the hope that improvement can be continual.

To ensure timely and quality services, an organizational and tracking plan should be implemented. This team uses a four part plan that allows a child to be tracked anywhere and at any time in this program. The team also knows who is responsible for each phase of the child's individual program. This is very important during the assessment phase because of the need to gather and share information with the team. The four part plan includes:

a statewide database system containing sixty-five fields covering everything from personal identifying information, to all phases of the program implementation, including projected dates of reevaluations.

a file system used to compile information on each client, including the referral, initial home visit, the service plan and any eligibility information that is necessary.

a tracking sheet that starts with thefile on the day the referral is received and is later moved to a notebook. This sheet has all of the activities of the process and the person responsible for them.

a staffing notebook that contains previous staffing notes for historical references and agendas to keep a record for the future meetings.

All of these activities play a part in ensuring that the team is efficient and expedient in providing appropriate services once a referral is made.

The referral, which may come from a variety of sources, is the first contact that the team has with the family and this starts the assessment process. There are several pieces of information that may come from the referral that may be useful to the team. It may be very important to know who the referral source is and what their relationship is with the child and family. This source may be able to provide specific information about the child's health or development, which could save planning time. It is also important to know why the child was referred or the concerns and if the parents are aware of the referral. Any information that can be acquired through the referral source that will aid in making contact with the family is a necessity, especially when working with rural families. Since the SoonerSart program is totally voluntary, the family is contacted by letter and by phone to set up an appropriate time for someone to do an initial home visit.

The initial home visit process is performed by the resource coordinator. This person is not only responsible for explaining the program to the family, but also for gathering information through a direct interview. This person also serves as a family contact and advocate throughout the families time of involvement with the program. While attempting to be family friendly, this interview focuses mainly on the families concerns about their child and how this program can work with the family for the benefit of the child (Winton & Bailey, 1990). The resource coordinator then brings this information back to present to the program coordinator and the lead clinician and from this meeting a decision can be made on the selection of the appropriate primary service provider (Eagen, 1984). The resource coordinator also presents the information from this interview to the team in a staffing to get their input on the primary service provider assignment and suggestions for the clinical intake process.

The assignment of the primary services provider is made with a lot of care. Every attempt is made to assign a person to this task that will be able to establish and maintain a positive relationship with the family. A part of the transdisciplinary model and a family oriented approach is to limit the number of people that comes into the home and interacts with the family. Therefore the team makes this decision based on the hope that the person will be able to provide the services to the family throughout their time of involvement in the program. This person then begins the clinical intake process. If time and distance are extenuating problems, the initial home visit and the clinical intake can be done simultaneously. The referral information should be very extensive for this to be appropriate.

The clinical intake is done by direct interview and involves the gathering of extensive information concerning the child's prenatal history, health issues, developmental milestones and any medical information that might be pertinent to the child's development. Through this process the primary service provider initiates a potential list of other professionals that the child or family has been involved with that might be able to share information to the team. Then signed releases of information can be obtained to send to as many of these people as is appropriate to expedite the information gathering process. Also during this meeting the primary service provider observes the child and the interaction with the parents. If the primary service provider decides it is appropriate, then a developmental screening is done. The information gathered from the clinical intake, observation and screening are compiled to help direct the decisions on eligibility and evaluation process. At the close of this meeting the primary service provider explains the process of multidisciplinary staffing and the assessment to the parents. Their attendance and/or input concerning the assessment is encouraged.

The results of the clinical intake, observation, screening and other information gathered concerning the child are shared with the team at a multidisciplinary staffing in which all of the team members are involved. In the transdisiplinary approach, an arena assessment is used as the main component of the evaluation. The following guidelines and considerations for arena or team assessments were taken from the state of Georgia program guidelines and from Wolery and Dyk (1984). The primary service provider uses a pre-assessment protocol to ensure that each component of the assessment has been addressed. These components would include:

Who will act as facilitator during the arena assessment? The facilitator is often a parent or other caregiver, or a member of the professional team from a discipline likely to be needed by the child. The facilitator is the only one who handles or interacts with the child, and attempts to elicit pre-determined behaviors. The parent is generally considered the best person for this role and is encouraged to do so. If the parent does not feel comfortable serving as facilitator, the primary service provider is the next likely candidate, because of their previously established rapport with the child.

Who will act as the coach? The primary service provider will unless they are the facilitator, then the interventionists that could best address any known concerns about the child. The coach helps the facilitator to remember the sequence and pre-determined activities of the assessment.

Behaviors of the child that require specific attention. Based upon the available information, team members decide what further evaluation/assessment information they need.

Assessment/evaluation tools to be used. It is often useful to decide upon one comprehensive developmental test and have each section scored by a member of the discipline most involved with that domain. Although using a transdisciplinary approach requires professionals to cross-train and share techniques to allow them to assess domains that might have been previously considered inappropriate for them. Evaluation tools and assessment procedures that are selected for each child will depend on several factors, the foremost being the purpose of the assessment. The assessment tools can be divided into seven categories: (a) screening tests, which may tap one or several developmental areas; (b) developmental inventories, which assess several areas; (c) cognitive assessment; (d) communication assessment instruments; (e) motor assessment; (f) social/emotional assessment; and (g) adaptive/self-help assessment. Another factor to be considered is the testing environment. When teams are doing home-based assessments in the rural setting they need to take into consideration whether procedures are appropriate to the home environment.

The order in which the various activities will take place. With young children it is especially important to organize the time to optimize the amount of information that can be obtained before the child becomes tired, hungry, or satiated. For this reason, activities to elicit the most necessary information should usually be done near the beginning of the session.

The toys, food, clothing, and other equipment needed to elicit specific behaviors. The necessary items should be listed and a team member made responsible for having them available at the time of the evaluation/assessment. This information is also helpful for program design when discussing resources available in the home.

Other evaluations or further information that is needed. It may be determined that some needed information is not possible to obtain during an arena assessment. This may include results of standardized cognitive tests, audiological evaluation, or laboratory procedures.

When and where will the arena assessment be conducted? The family should have a lot of input into the time and place of the assessment, and the assessment should be scheduled around the child's daily routine to the extent possible.

Finalizing travel plans. Since a team may cover a large rural area, a concerted effort is made to share travel. This is a very opportune time to go over any pertinent information concerning the child. It also allows the team members a chance to finalize the organization, responsibilities and communication of the assessment procedure.

The transdisciplinary team assessment, is preferably held in a room that is large enough for the team to sit comfortably removed from the child and facilitator. This may be difficult when doing home-based services. The testing environment should be discussed during the pre-assessment meeting along with potential problems that may arise. Limiting the number of professionals that go into the home and are involved with the assessment helps solve some of the space problems. The choice of seating is then made from a strategic observational standpoint and weighed against the intrusiveness of the professional on the child and family. During a team assessment, only the family and the facilitator (if not the family member) handle the child. The coach prompts the facilitator, as necessary, to ensure that all information requested by the team is elicited. The other team members quietly observe and record pertinent interactions and other behaviors of the child, including interactions with the family.

Participating team members should try to be as organized and thorough as possible. They need to have very good observational skills, so the assessment process is concise, but the necessary information is obtained. This is especially true in the rural areas, because distance and time constraints limit the number of visits a professional can make for assessments. Again, to be family oriented the team should strive to complete the assessment in one visit. Some effort should also be made to provide the family with some closure concerning the assessment. A tentative schedule should be set for a time to discuss the results and implement a program for the family.

Immediately following the evaluation, on the ride back is possible. Participating team members can discuss any issues or concerns. It is very important for team members to give each other feedback about the process, not only for the current assessment, but for future ones (Landerholm, 1990).

The results of the evaluation/assessment are then compiled into a report and the primary service provider presents this to the team at a post-assessment staffing. Although assessment is considered to be ongoing, for program service implementation purposes, this is the last phase of the assessment process. The team then reviews all the available information and makes recommendations to the primary service provider and resource coordinator, who are responsible for writing and implementing a service plan with the family.

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MAKATON VOCABULARY LANGUAGE PROGRAM

Paper submitted by June Wilder, Martha Shepherd, Marilyn Schuster, Joyce Pufnock

Introduction

The Makaton Vocabulary was designed in England in 1972 by Margaret Walker, a speech/language pathologist, to aid in developing communication skills in institutionalized deaf adults with severe learning difficulties (Cornforth, Johnston & Walker, 1974; Walker, 1973, 1977). Results showed that 14 residents participating were able to learn and use manual signs. Positive effects were noted in other areas of behavior, notably an increase in vocalizations, socialization, and attending and eye contact. Following this the approach was used successfully with the hearing populations with severe communication problems. The Vocabulary was revised to be used with adults and children in community settings (Walker, 1976, 1978). Interest in Britian spread and the Makaton Vocabulary Project, a charitable trust, was established to provide training and resource materials. At first, Makaton used only speech and signs but later symbols for the vocabulary were added. In 1992, the Department of Education for the United Kingdom recommended Makaton be used to help teach the National Curriculum to children with Special Education needs and is now used in 100% of schools serving special needs children in the U.K..

As early as 1976 the Makaton program was exported to Australia. Since that time users have been trained in New Zealand, Pakistan, Hong Kong, Norway, Belgium, Spain, Portugal, and Japan. In the United States thousands of professionals and parents have been trained since 1985 when it was introduced in Nebraska.

Makaton is used with a wide variety of individuals with communication difficulties including children and adults with mental disabilities, autism, specific language disorders, multiple sensory disorders and acquired neurological problems affecting communication. Workshops are held for training those who interact with these students--the teachers, families, friends and support people who work with them.

The Makaton Vocabulary is designed with the needs of the user in mind. The students are likely to be limited in processing, retention and recall of information so memory loading is kept light, concepts are taught on a communication priority basis, personalized to each student's needs and functional communication is stressed from the start.

At the present time there are 15 training Representatives in Georgia who are certified by Margaret Walker to train Makaton users. All materials except the signing video and manual are produced in Britain by institutions that employ the disabled. Information regarding training sessions is at the end of this paper.

The Makaton Program

The signs used in Makaton may help for the following reasons:

Makaton simplifies the process of communication. The size of the vocabulary has been deliberately restricted so that it is easier to remember. People with communication weaknesses may manage to learn only a limited number of signs, symbols and words and it is important that the ones they remember are the most necessary and useful.

When the communicator is signing and speaking (as speech always accompanies the sign), he/she is more likely to go more slowly than you normally would.

Many of the signs are iconic or closely resemble the object or activity they represent. e.g. the sign for "eat" looks like a pantomime of eating. There are clues in signs that are absent in the spoken word. The sign "to go" shows the direction that is to be taken, the sign "to give" shows who is to give to whom. By making a large sign for "ball" one can indicate a tennis ball versus a therapy ball. Basic information is therefore given in a very visual manner and may allow the child or adult to understand much more of the communication intent.

Use of the signs/symbols may encourage pragmatic intent as they may be able to communicate their basic wants and desires.

As well as giving a means of expression, the use of signs may encourage the development of speech. Given a choice of two means of communication the user will pick the most efficient means which may be signing if they do not verbalize or speech to the exclusion of previously known signs.

The Makaton program standardizes the communication input and output for the communication disabled baby, child or adult. By standardizing the interactor and colleagues will decrease the likelihood of confusion. Everyone will be using the same signs for "Stop" or "Come here" (Walker, 1990).

Makaton Symbols

Early in the development of the Makaton Vocabulary Language Program, Margaret Walker and her colleagues realized the need for a symbol match to the

Makaton Vocabulary. Although the signs were useful in developing understanding/comprehension for severely physically disabled students, it was difficult or impossible for this population to use them to communicate. The autistic population needed a method that taught language that was more concrete. Still others, both intellectually impaired and language disabled, needed the permanence of symbols to manipulate language, improve syntax, teach readiness skills for reading, and provide an avenue to begin writing using symbols.

Various existing symbol systems were considered, however, they were found too complicated for individuals with intellectual impairments or too complex to draw easily. As a result, Makaton symbols were devised to match the Makaton Vocabulary. These symbols were developed over a ten year period, and in 1983/84 were officially adopted with a 73% easy recognition rate.

Today the design features of the Makaton symbols make them easy to use. They are simple and easy to draw. Each symbol represents a separate unit of language and provides information about the concept for which they stand. They can be used on communication boards, wall charts, computers, individual cards, as communication similar to writing, as a bridge to teach reading readiness skills, and more.

Use of Makaton symbols can extend across a range of disabilities. They are ideally suited for those with severe physical disabilities and the autistic population. They are also recommended for use with any child or adult with language/learning or communication problems. The Makaton Vocabulary Language Program offers a multi-modal approach that is flexible in meeting the individual needs and preferences of those with whom it is used.

MAKATON GEORGIA TRAINING SESSIONS

Makaton Georgia, Inc. offers three kinds of workshops:

1. **A Beginner's Basic Workshop**, including history and training methods of the Makaton Language Development Program, plus two practical sessions for participants to learn signs used with the vocabulary;

2. **A Symbols Workshop**, which explains the symbols used with the Makaton Program and offers participants hands-on training in learning symbols;

3. **An Advanced Workshop**, where participants learn signs for all nine stages of the Makaton vocabulary and have an opportunity for in-depth practice signing sentences and stories.

Each workshop lasts 5 1/2 teaching hours. An additional hour for lunch and two 15-minute breaks bring total time for the workshop to seven hours. Makaton Georgia Representatives all have full-time jobs. Therefore, workshops must be scheduled for Saturdays or during vacations. In most cases, two representatives will teach each workshop. This helps ensure small groups in each workshop, so that participants can learn as much as possible.

Steps for scheduling a workshop are as follows:

1. At least six weeks prior to the anticipated training, the organization should contact the Makaton Georgia State Training Officer with at least two possible dates for the workshop:

   Martha Shepherd
   State Training Officer
   Makaton Georgia, Inc.
   P.O. Box 942
   Tucker, GA 30085-0942
   Telephone: 404/934-0557 (please call during evening hours)

2. After receiving a request, the State Training Officer will contact Makaton Representatives to determine their availability; contact the organization with a tentative date; send a contract outlining the duties of Makaton Georgia and the responsibilities of the organization.

3. After the organization has returned a signed contract, the State Training Officer will confirm the workshop with the Makaton Representatives scheduled to lead the workshop.

In addition to the one-day workshops mentioned above, Makaton Georgia offers either an extended 10-hour course for 1 SDU or a full staff development course (50 hours; 5 SDUs), depending on availability of Representatives to teach these courses.

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COLLABORATING TO ENHANCE RESILIENCE IN RURAL AT-RISK STUDENTS

For those educators and community members still not convinced that large numbers of children in the United States are an "endangered species", Hodgkinson (1991) illuminated the degree to which social and economic changes have impacted upon young children: nearly one-third of all preschool children are destined for school failure because of poverty, neglect, sickness, handicapping conditions, and lack of adult protection or nurturance. Rural statistics are even more devastating (Helge, 1990).

In the foundations class I teach, "Education: School and Society", a favorite assignment of mine is for students to read Hodgkinson's Phi Delta Kappan article and respond to his final questions: "What can educators do that they are not already doing to reduce the number of children "at-risk" in America and to get them achieving well in school settings? And how can educators collaborate closely with other service providers so that we all work together toward the urgent goal of providing services to the same client?" (1991, p. 16). It proves to be a paper for pre-teaching students that requires a "stretch" in thinking, yet semester after semester, the consensus of thought is identical: to truly reform and improve education, changes must be made in schools as well as in a broad range of social policies.

Over 60 years ago George Counts provided an orientation for educators that continues to be timely advice today: "In their own lives teachers must bridge the gap between school and society and play some part in the fashioning of those great common purposes which should bind the two together" (1932, p. 28). What part should educators play in fashioning the great common purposes of binding school and society together?

For the rural educator who believes in the tenet of research informing practice, the amount of literature to investigate and integrate is overwhelming. The body of research concerning at-risk students, school failure, prevention of alcohol and other substance abuse, school reform, and school-linked services has increased by a hundred-fold in the last ten years. Researchers in education, psychology, health education, substance abuse, and change theory have each added their tiny "bead" to the advancement of what we know about children in our society.

There seems to be a dawning recognition that linkages and collaboration may prove to be a successful framework for schools in this decade and the next century (Jehl & Kirst, 1992). DeYoung (1990) and others call for a redoubling of effort in linking the concerns of the community with that of rural schooling. What are we, as rural and special educators, doing to integrate that diverse knowledge-base, to guarantee that those linkages occur, to enhance healthy families, schools and communities? What strategies are needed in order to reduce the number of at-risk children and youth in our rural communities? How can we gather each of the many well-formed, charms and jewels of research and string them together to fashion a coherent strategy for developing healthy and secure children? Surely our greatest challenge is to encircle children of every community with a protective talisman of services and strengths, enabling them to honor the unity of life and be ready to take on the challenges of the 21st century.

This paper will attempt to provide an integrated framework for the action of collaboration in rural communities that can link disciplines and knowledge bases together. Lessons learned in the areas of at-risk, prevention, and resilience can be tempered and improved upon by what is already known in the fields of community development and change theory.

At-risk, Prevention, and Resilience

Many disciplines have focused for the past decade upon the identification of factors that can contribute to a child being "at-risk". While most educators are familiar with the comprehensive list of at-risk conditions, and many school programs are currently in place that help to identify at-risk children of all ages, identification of risk factors does not necessarily translate into the strategies needed to reduce those risks. The abundance of familial and environmental conditions that contribute to teen pregnancy, suicide, alcohol and other drug abuse, school failure, gang activity, child abuse, and crime is overwhelming. Total understanding of at-risk children would have to encompass the disciplines of psychology, sociology, special education, mental health, and medicine. There is one area of study, however, that has already integrated and compiled a remarkable body of research on at-risk issues, and that is the field of prevention.

Prevention

> Although there are interrelationships among other difficulties, none, with the possible exception of school failure, is so intimately tied to as broad an array of problems, or is so powerful an etiological factor in their occurrence, across so broad a range of populations. Substance abuse is a major causal factor in the skyrocketing rates of child abuse, crime, and gang activities. Because of these features, they are also among the most devastating in the country, have the "deepest developmental roots", and require the most comprehensive strategies for amelioration (Felnar, Mulhall, & Adix, 1992, p. 8).

The "prevention" field of research literature is concerned with the prevention of alcohol and other drug abuses (AODA). AODA and school failure are intimately intertwined and are two of the few core difficulties that either directly lead to and/or are directly influenced by almost all others. Understanding the evolution of prevention strategies in the past two decades can do much to inform schools and communities as to "what works".

The implementation and refinement of effective prevention strategies requires an understanding of the causal pathways of AODA. Program design should meet a "standard of intentionality" that follows directly from understandings of those causal pathways, and be geared towards the characteristics and conditions of the target population (Felner et al. 1992). For example, academic stresses are a risk factor for AODA, yet the types of academic stress that manifest in gifted youth versus average youth, economically disadvantaged versus middle-class youth, and rural versus urban youth will vary from group to group. Prevention in your community must begin with the identification of risk conditions, vulnerabilities, and competencies that are most likely to influence the rate of AODA in your target population. Programs of prevention must target and change the levels of risk conditions in the desired direction.

Helge (1990) identifies ten preventive and treatment approaches to assist rural at-risk students. These factors, if tapped in each rural community, can go far to ameliorate problems of rural, at-risk youth, to be sure. But each of these components must be backed by a common goal that transcends the mere identification of and provision of services provided to at-risk students and families.

Resilience in At-risk Youth

How should school and communities transform what is known about prevention and risk factors into action strategies? A framework for action is that of protective factors. Preventionists are studying "protective factors" and "resiliency" in youth, or what is known about environmental factors that lead to the development of youth who do not get involved in "life-compromising" problems (Benard, 1987). Longitudinal research (Garmezy, 1991; Rutter, 1984; Werner &Smith, 1982) shows a consistent finding -- that while a certain percentage of high-risk children develop various problems at a higher percentage than in the normal population, an even greater percentage of the children become healthy and competent adults. This finding has led prevention researchers to an examination of the protective factors, defined as those conditions, traits, situations and episodes that appear to alter -- or even reverse -- predictions of negative outcomes (Benard, 1992).

A profile of the resilient child shows one who has attributes of social competence, problem-solving skills, autonomy, and a sense of purpose and the future. Examples of pro-social behavior are those qualities of caring, empathy, communication skills, flexibility, and a sense of humor. Problem-solving skills include the ability to think abstractly, reflectively, and to be able to attempt alternate solutions for both cognitive and social problems. Autonomy is generally defined as having a sense of one's own identity and the ability to act independently, as well as exert some control over one's environment. Related to a sense of autonomy is the sense of purpose, including attributes such as educational aspirations, persistence, healthy expectancies, goal-directedness, achievement motivation, hopefulness, hardiness, a belief in a bright future, and a sense of coherence, considered by many researchers to be one of the most powerful predictors of positive outcome (Werner & Smith, 1982). Research indicates the personalities of resilient children have many similar attributes (Benard, 1992).

Children and youth can experience major stress, adversity, and risk in one or more environmental systems, most typically the family, school, and community. Protective characteristics in each of a child's environments enhance the development of resiliency in an interrelated manner. In other words, when a child's major risks come from one environment (such as the condition of living in poverty in the community environment), many of the factors defined as protective will derive from the remaining environments (family and school). Both protective factor research and research on effective schools clearly identify the characteristics of schools that build resiliency in youth, and they parallel the protective factors found in the family environments of resilient youth (Benard, 1992; Rutter, 1987).

Characteristics that repeatedly prove to be predictors for resilience in all environments are: a caring and supportive relationship with one or more adults, high expectations for the future, and encouragement of participation and responsibility. When planning curriculum, programs, and interagency efforts to enhance resiliency, we must attend to providing for these three characteristics of resiliency in each of the three environments in order to enhance the attributes of social competence, problem-solving skills, autonomy, and sense of purpose.

Collaborative Arrangements

"We need collaborative, coordinated public -- at all levels of government -- and private efforts aimed at both the micro level -- creating informal supports for children and families -- and at the macro level -- creating larger transformations in our economic and political systems that address the underlying issue of social justice through comprehensive policies creating social, educational, health care, and employment opportunities" (Benard, 1990, p. 12).

Once a school embraces the philosophy that collaborative arrangements with other agencies serving children and families are the key to secure and healthy children and youth in the 21st century, it must then establish those linkages. The Center for the Future of Children developed an "emerging list" of seven criteria for school-linked services, noting that very few current efforts meet all of the criteria. Yet in the early stages of creating "larger transformations", it is helpful to have some sort of map for stringing together the wide array of inputs for at-risk youth.

For school-linked service efforts to be effective:

1. . . . the participating agencies will have to change how they deliver services to children and families and how they work with each other.

2. . . . their planning and implementation should not be dominated by any one institution -- school or health or social service agencies.

3. . . . they should be comprehensive and tailored to the needs of individual children and their families.

4. . . . each agency participating in school-linked service efforts should redirect some of its current funding to support the new collaboration.

5. . . . should involve and support parents and family as a whole.

6. . . . should be both willing and able to collect data about what is attempted and achieved and at what cost.

7. . . . should be able to respond to the diversity of children and families.
(Larson, Gomby, Shiono, Lewit, Behrman, 1992).

To make use of so many diverse and interdisciplinary efforts, the connecting threads of collaboration and community development can help schools and communities begin the work of putting all that is known together.

Community Development Theory

Though a community development framework is used most frequently for issues focused on improving housing and economic conditions, it also has a history of success in education. The purpose of community development is to enhance people's capacity for making effective decisions (Bhattacharyya, 1991). A review of the literature indicates that community development has a rich history of successful applications both nationally and internationally. Most commonly used in third world nations that have large rural populations and/or large numbers of people living at or below the poverty level, it is applicable for urban, suburban, or rural use. Principles of community development can be successfully and appropriately used in any setting to organize any type of services; educational, health care, literacy, substance abuse prevention, etc. Friere's (1973) work with literacy of the oppressed in South America is probably one of the most striking and well-known utilizations of the community development theory in rural settings.

Three operating principles of community development are self-help, felt needs, and participation. Self-help is the opposite of dependence and functions to encourage self-reliance as both a goal and method of operation for members of the community. Felt needs is that of limiting the powers of an outside intervener, toward a goal of reliance and priority-setting. Participation can be defined as community autonomy and can be considered a "bill of rights" that the intervener will solve the community's problem and not his or her own (Bhattacharyya, 1991).

A traditional approach in providing services is that where the institution or group names the condition to ameliorated. Implementation of a community development model is distinguishable from the traditional approach by not implementing services directly, but rather by encouraging and empowering people to make changes for themselves. While the cry of educators may be that they are "only responding to the needs of the community", it is important to recognize the potential for restructuring and reform if students and families are empowered and encouraged to express their needs and expectations. While the literature of failed reforms efforts may not be so rich as that of successful reforms, surely an inherent cause of failure is that the true problem or root cause of a condition is not the one that administrators had perceived.

An illustrative example is the recent failure of a well-meaning program in rural Southern Illinois designed to instruct female migrant women in English as a second language. The women gladly made use of the free child care offered during the instruction time, but showed little intention of learning English, other than attending class. The perceptions of the program developers had been that the women needed to learn English, but if the women had been invited to express their own desires, English as a second language would have been far down the list.

In reflection on your school and community's past, present, or future programs and services, ask yourselves these questions:

> Is this program fulfilling a need that is perceived by the planners (administrators, leaders, educators, service providers), or has it been expressed by the people that will gain from the program?
>
> Are there a variety of ways that students and families can have input and become more self-reliant in the provision of these programs?
>
> Are you encouraging or discouraging input from all community members in the planning and delivery of integrated services?

The success or failure of a program, no matter how well-integrated and comprehensive, may hinge on these vital principles. Attention to a community development frame of thinking can both create and empower self-reliant individuals and enhance participation by all (Gunn & Gunn, 1991).

Change Theory

Incorporation of community development principles, collaboration with agencies outside the traditional school system, and enhancement of protective factors in the family, school and community can be integrated to provide a holistic array of services for at-risk youth. Effective implementation of these and similar reforms translates into enormous change for all involved. An additional discipline that educators and service providers must attend to is the character of the change process itself. It is important to understand why education reform and attempts at restructuring frequently fail. Interdisciplinary planning teams must examine their ideas and changes against a background of what is known about change in order to improve chance of long-lasting, successful restructuring efforts. Rather than failing for a lack of innovation, Fullan and Miles (1992) stress that reform efforts fail due to fragmented, uncoordinated, and ephemeral attempts to change.

What can rural educators, service providers and families do to ensure their interdisciplinary and collaborative arrangements will succeed? Knowledge about the change process is both the best defense and the best offense available in achieving substantial education reform. Seven basic reasons why reform fails and seven propositions for successful change efforts are summarized here, but it is vital that those responsible for establishing collaborative arrangements and initiating protective factor-building in the rural community understand and study change in greater detail. Consider appointing a member of your planning team to become the resident "change expert".

Reasons for failure of reforms (Fullan & Miles, 1992):

1) Each member of the team has a "faulty map" of change;
2) Solutions to complex problems are not simple;
3) Politics of the area may favor symbols of change over substance;
4) Attempts to solve problems are frequently done in an impatient and superficial manner;

5) Resistance to change can be misunderstood;
6) Pockets of success may not survive if surrounding conditions change;
7) Knowledge about the change process is misused.

Linkage is an important part of the process of change, and it is crucial that each of the following propositions below be linked before and during reforms taken in your community:

1) Change is learning -- loaded with uncertainty;
2) Change is a journey, not a blueprint;
3) Problems are our friends;
4) Change is resource-hungry;
5) Change requires the power to manage it;
6) Change is systemic;
7) All large-scale change is implemented locally.

Learning and living out the change processes named above can help to make the process more explicit in our minds and actions, as well as contribute to the knowledge of change on the part of those with whom we interact.

Recommendations

Six small talismans of knowledge, informed by research and ready to be threaded together in fashioning an amulet of protection for your community's children.

1. Change from an orientation of labeling and identifying youth at-risk in rural communities to that of identifying risk conditions of your target population, working to eliminate the causal pathways to AODA.

2. Focus on the four major "attribute-groups" commonly held by resilient children: social competence, problem-solving skills, autonomy, and a sense of purpose.

3. Encourage all in your community to consider the importance of a multi-level approach in enhancements of environments for children and youth: family, school, and community.

4. Stop to consider if your community's collaborative efforts are occurring from "top down", or are being organized in keeping with community development principles of self-help, felt needs, and participation.

5. Work to establish collaborative relationships with all private and public groups in your community that value the future of children.

6. Appoint a member of the planning team to become well-versed in the change process, as described by Fullan and Miles (1992).

Be encouraged that it will be the local change efforts, local interventions, local strategies, and local collaborative arrangements that are the tools to nourishing protective factors in at-risk children in the family, school, and community.

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Christine Chancey
Joyce Menz

Florida's Institute for Small and Rural Districts

Best Practices and Exemplary Programs

The Florida Institute for Small and Rural Districts works in collaboration with the State Department of Education, Bureau of Education for Exceptional Students to ensure that program assistance regarding exceptional student education is offered and provided to all small and rural county school districts in Florida. The 27 school districts with an overall prekindergarten through grade 12 membership of 7,000 or fewer are being targeted for this initiative.

Major goals of the Institute are listed below:

1. Provides a statewide network of technical assistance and services to small and rural district exceptional student education administrators in Florida.

2. Shares information and assists with current programmatic and functional concerns in rural exceptional student education.

3. Maintains a database of district and other experts with unique expertise for rural service delivery.

4. Coordinates with university training programs regarding coursework needed by small and rural district personnel.

5. Assists with teacher recruitment and retention.

6. Produces reports and disseminates resources and best practice information on topics and issues related to rural exceptional education.

7. Sponsors teleconferences and working meetings on issues related to small and rural exceptional education.

8. Provides consultative networking, cross-district visitation, referral to appropriate sources, travel to model sites, and similar efforts.

The objective of this poster session is to share activities related to the sixth goal, the dissemination of resources and best practice information on topics and issues related to Exceptional Student Education.

The following best practice assistance has been provided to the 27 small and rural district ESE directors since the inception of the Institute:

1. Four 1-day regional meetings were held across the state in January of 1992 on "Vocational Options for ESE Students." Successful practices in small districts, such as Community-Based Instruction and Supported Competitive Employment were shared.

2. In June of 1992, a teleconference on effective time and office management practices entitled "Taming the Paper Tiger" was offered. A video of the teleconference and a book by the same title were provided to all 27 district ESE directors.

3. During the first day of a 2-day Summer Worksession, July, 1992 for the 27 ESE directors, a Department of Education program specialist presented the components and effective practices needed to develop or strengthen an Emotionally Handicapped/Severely Emotionally Disturbed program. This was in response to a need identified early on in the Institute initiative.

4. The Institute is in the process of developing a database of recommended experts in various ESE areas, which will be shared with the directors both on diskette and in hard copy form.

5. Lastly, the Institute has compiled a database of small district best practices and exemplary programs, for the purpose of providing opportunities for sharing and visiting.

The following pages comprise the nomination forms, information, and procedures for the best practices and exemplary programs identification effort. These are shared as a suggested set of procedures for establishing such a database.

It is anticipated that this effort will be of great benefit to small and rural district ESE directors and to their teachers. Visitations and consultation will be encouraged to enable districts to see how particular programmatic problems and obstacles are being dealt with in another small and rural district.

BEST PRACTICES AND EXEMPLARY PROGRAMS IN EXCEPTIONAL STUDENT EDUCATION

DEFINITIONS

Best Practices	District or school level practice which enhances the effectiveness of ESE programs in general, i.e. management practices, parent involvement programs, use of technology, staff development etc.
Exemplary Programs	ESE programs with documented evidence of success in meeting educational needs of ESE students and increasing student performance.

BEST PRACTICES AND EXEMPLARY PROGRAMS IN EXCEPTIONAL STUDENT EDUCATION

Exemplary programs and practices in exceptional student education (ESE) are in place in Florida's small and rural education systems. Identifying and promoting those successful programs and practices is one of the goals of the Institute for Small and Rural Districts (ISRD). Areas of particular interest are programs for low incidence populations and district management procedures. Consultative networking among districts with similar needs will result from the sharing of practices and visits to programs identified through this initiative. The purpose of this ISRD activity is to share the positive impacts that are being made in small, rural districts for exceptional education. These positive areas include: "coping strategies" as ESE administrators juggle multiple job responsibilities, ESE staffing practices, programs delivery options, and the creative utilization of materials and resources. Effective programs and practices are frequently not flashy or large scale. Often they are those unique ideas and solutions that grow out of experience and a desire to improve small and rural district services with limited resources.

Selection Process

Recognition as a Best Practice or Exemplary Program begins with nominations from schools and school districts, as well as Bureau of Exceptional Student Education and Florida Diagnostic and Learning Resource System centers. The nomination form is used to supply information to briefly describe the program. On the basis of this information, a review committee, consisting of ISRD coordinators, BEES representatives, and an ESE administrator from a small district, will screen and review nominations according to the following criteria:

BEST PRACTICES AND EXEMPLARY PROGRAMS IN EXCEPTIONAL STUDENT EDUCATION

(cont.)

1. An exemplary program nomination includes a statement of purpose or goal, description of student involvement, description of success regarding student outcomes, characteristics of the program, and materials and activities included in the program.

2. A best practice nomination includes significant characteristics of the practice, the context of the practice and the need addressed by the practice in successful enhancement of ESE programs and/or administrative procedures.

Validation of best practices and exemplary programs in exceptional student education will be determined after they are screened in the following manner:

1. Programs and practices nominated will be screened and a site visit by two members of the review committee will be completed to verify successful operation and to gather additional information, .

2. After the site visit, the program or practice will be brought back to the review committee for final review.

Dissemination

A full description of the selected exemplary programs and best practices will be disseminated in booklet form. Procedures and policies for requesting further information or a visit to the program or practice will be included.

INSTITUTE FOR SMALL [illegible]

NOMINATION FORM

FOR

Complete one form for each program or practice.

Check One: ☐ Exemplary Programs ☐ Best Practices

Name of Nominee: ____________________

Title: ____________________

District: __________ School: __________

School Address: ____________________

Area of Nomination : *(Please check all which are applicable.)*

- ☐ Affective Curriculum
- ☐ Behavior Management System
- ☐ Class Management/Organization
- ☐ Precision Teaching
- ☐ Computer Use/Technology
- ☐ Learning Strategies
- ☐ Cooperative Consultation Curriculum
- ☐ Pre Kindergarten Programs
- ☐ Mainstreaming
- ☐ Emotionally Handicapped
- ☐ Educable Mentally Handicapped
- ☐ Profoundly Mentally Handicapped
- ☐ Specific Learning Disability
- ☐ Trainable Mentally Handicapped
- ☐ Least Restrictive Environment
- ☐ Learning Centers
- ☐ Strategies Intervention Model
- ☐ Language Development
- ☐ Teacher - Made Materials
- ☐ Transportation
- ☐ Use of Manipulatives
- ☐ Use of Paraprofessionals
- ☐ Volunteers / Tutors
- ☐ Vocational
- ☐ Sensory Impaired
- ☐ Severely Emotionally Handicapped
- ☐ Varying Exceptionalities
- ☐ Other__________

Best Time for Phone Contact: ____________________

Best Day and Time for Visit from Nominating Committee: ____________________

Most Convenient Day and Time to Schedule Observations: ____________________

Name of Person Making Recommendation: ____________________

Title: __________ Organization: __________ Phone: __________

Brief Description of Programs and Practices: ____________________

Return to: ISRD
Route 1, Box 8500
Palatka, Florida 32177

In summary, The Institute for Small and Rural Districts has been a valuable support system for ESE Directors in the smaller sized Florida school districts. The initial concepts for the design of the Institute were based upon the need to establish a support system for smaller sized districts because of the complexities involved in operating ESE programs, especially when the Administrator has many responsibilities in addition to ESE. Small sized districts have few and precious fiscal and human resources at their disposal. An Advisory Committee composed of ESE Directors, University personnel, and Institute staff, has guided the efforts of the Institute and ESE Directors support the Institute wholeheartedly.

For further information regarding this Florida small district ESE initiative, you may contact:

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YOUTH OPPORTUNITIES UNLIMITED: THE RESULTS OF A THREE YEAR STUDY

I. Introduction

Need: Drop-out Prevention

To insure the future of the world, we will need to depend on the education and training of our youth. The need for a well educated population can not be underestimated. Because we are such a technological and complicated society, we need the very best educated youth possible. Keeping our children in school to obtain this education is vital. Programs that encourage students to stay in school should have a high priority endorsement nationally.

Drop-outs represent a loss of human potential and productivity which translates into a very high income cost to our society (Hamby, 1989). Current statistics show that approximately one in four students drop out of school without graduating (Kunisawa, 1988). Today's society puts limits on those individuals who lack a formal education. Historically the minimum of a high school diploma was not required for good employment, but it is today. High school dropouts today suffer more difficulty than ever before in obtaining good vocational opportunities (Brief Guidelines on Information and Strategy for Dropout Prevention in West Virginia, 1984).

Dropout prevention is a good investment, especiallywhen considering the alternative. Many dropouts do not participate productively in the work force and are often considered a burden on society (Gabriel and Anderson, 1987). High dropout rates cost society in such forms as increased crime rates, higher prison cost, an overworked welfare system, and greater economic loss to the nation. Experts maintain the importance of education to help a person become a productive citizen.

We must view the problem in terms of prevention. Potential dropouts have not yet dropped out of school, so the problem may be addressed for some persons by intervention strategies. The use of positive intervention strategies should reduce the high dropout rate. This report shares information about a research study relating to one such intervention approach.

Program: Overview of Youth Opportunities Unlimited

Youth Opportunities Unlimited (Y.O.U.) started in Texas with a successful migrant worker education program. In 1988, Arkansas decided to pursue the Y.O.U. program to help reduce its high school dropout rate. On June 15, 1988, Arkansas implemented its first summer residential Y.O.U. program for high school students who have been designated as at-risk of dropping out of school.

These first efforts of Henderson State University and the

Arkansas Department of Education marked the beginning of the Youth Opportunities Unlimited Program in Arkansas. In 1989, Henderson hosted a second program, with the addition of three more programs at three other Arkansas universities: Arkansas State University, Southern Arkansas University in Magnolia, and University of Arkansas at Pine Bluff. In 1990, a program at the University of the Ozarks was added. In 1991, The University of the Ozarks could not participate in the Y.O.U. program due to a lack of sufficient summer jobs on the campus; however, the University of Arkansas at Monticello was added to the group.

The Y.O.U. participants were identified by their schoolcounselors as "at risk" for dropping out, using factors suchas low family income, families who have not completed high school, families who have not placed a substantial value on education, a lack of interest in school, increased mobility, etc, (Gabriel & Anderson, 1987; Steinmiller & Steinmiller, 1990). These students were further screened and selected to participate in Y.O.U. program by representatives from the Service Delivery Areas (SDA). The SDA's are responsible for the allocation of funds from the Federal Jobs Training Partnership Act (JTPA). Primary funding for Y.O.U. comes from the Vocational and Technical Educational Division of the Arkansas Department of Education. In 1988 the cost for each student was $3,150 (Y.O.U. fact sheet, June 1988). In 1989, this rate was increased to $3,250 per student.

Each Arkansas Y.O.U. program gives 14 and 15 year -old students across the state the opportunity to master basic skills in language arts and mathematics. They also participate in quality work experience during their "intensive" sixty-day residential program on the various universities' campuses (Henderson State University Press Release June 14, 1988).

The academic component of the Y.O.U. program consists of two academic classes and a job skills class. The academic classes are approximately one hour and forty-five minutes and are taught in the morning and afternoon; the job skills class is one hour. The academic classes are taught by Arkansas certified public school teachers. The students are divided into morning and afternoon groups, so that they can attend classes for one half of the day and work the remaining half. This program also enables the students to earn 1/2 credit of elective course work in English, math, or reading which can be counted on their school transcripts toward graduation requirements.

The students are paid for working at specific job sites on the university campus. Most students are able to take home between $600-$700.00 for their endeavors. This amount varies depending on how much they spend of their weekly allowance during the program. The students learn budgeting skills in the job skills class.

Besides the education and work training aspects of Y.O.U. program, a wide range of support services are available to the students. These services include a health care component (physical and dental), a counseling component, and a recreational component. For some students the Y.O.U. program offers them their first chance to have a dental or physical exam.

The Y.O.U. program is a very comprehensive program that takes into consideration the whole child. Information about the Y.O.U. program, is available from the Y.O.U. Supervisor, Exemplary Programs, Vocational and Technical Division, Luther S. Hardin Building, Little Rock, AR 72201-1083.

Study: Overview of Youth Opportunities Unlimited Follow-up

The Follow-up component of the Y.O.U. program was implemented at the inception of Arkansas's Y.O.U. endeavor, because the program leaders had the foresight to realize accountability is essential to any program. Efforts were made to gain funds to "follow-up" the Y.O.U. students. Through the Carl Perkins Vocational Educational Act grant funds, the Y.O.U. Follow-up component became a reality.

The primary objective of the Follow-up was to determine whether the students who completed the Y.O.U. programs would graduate from high school. To accomplish this objective, it was essential that a monthly contact be maintained with each student. Because this type of student is often very transient, less than a monthly contact would have increased the number of students lost. We wanted to be sure we could account for as many students as possible who completed the Y.O.U. program.

The secondary objectives established for this project included: 1. maintain a monthly contact with the students, 2. self-esteem data collection, 3. devise an exit interviews, 4. devise a spring interview and collection plan, 5. devise a grade information sheet and collect data on grades and attendance from the counselors in schools, 6. bring students back for a retreat and 7. gather stay-in school statistics.

This report is the culmination of all of the Arkansas Y.O.U. Follow-up projects. Because of the intense relationship that has developed between the Y.O.U. students and their institutions, each university maintained contact with its own Y.O.U. program graduation. Henderson State University had the responsibility to coordinate each university effort, as well as collects and reports the data. Thus, this report is made possible through the efforts of all the Y.O.U. Follow-up personnel throughout the State of Arkansas.

As the Follow-up progressed, it was discovered that although the above objectives were important to determine the success and accountability of the Y.O.U. program, the Follow-up served an even more important role. Because of the emphasis on monthly student contacts, the Follow-up had become not just a research vehicle, but a life-line for many of the Y.O.U. students. This aspect of the Follow-up has become so important that the Arkansas Y.O.U. leaders are trying to find other funds available to extend the Follow-up effort on a permanent basis.

Monthly Contact

Monthly contacts are an essential part of the Y.O.U. Follow-up, as is seen in the program commentaries. This is one of the most time-consuming aspects of the Follow-up project. Because our students move often, keeping track of where they are living can become very difficult. To avoid losing contact with our students, we keep in touch with them monthly. This contact has been in the form of newsletters, birthday cards, holiday cards, phone calls, visits, interviews, etc.

We have been very fortunate that the persons involved in maintaining the monthly contact have been diligent in their duties. Many times numerous phone calls were needed to locate a student. Often students do not have telephones in their homes and arrangements had to be made to contact them through their schools, neighbors, friends, or relatives.

This diligence has paid off, however. Of the 1988 students, the Y.O.U. Follow-up has current addresses on all students. Of the 1989 students, 3 are out of contact with the Y.O.U. Follow-up, and of the 1990 students 7 are out of contact. We have lost contact with only 10 students. This is out of a total of 518. The Follow-up personnel at each university are currently continuing to try and locate these students. **It is important to note that the information in this report is based on a 98% return rate.**

High School Personality Questionnaire Results (HSPQ)

To determine self-esteem attitude changes, we used the Junior-Senior High School Personality Questionnaire. The areas measured in this questionnaire were cool or warm personalities, concrete or abstract thinking, emotional or emotionally calm, phlegmatic or excitable, submissive or dominant, sober or cheerful, expedient or conforming, shy or bold, tough or tender minded, vigorous or withdrawn, self assured or apprehensive, group-oriented or self-sufficient, undisciplined or self-disciplined, and relaxed or tense.

Students entering the Y.O.U. program filled out the inventory during their first week on each campus. They were then given the post-test seven weeks later during the last week of the Y.O.U. program. The results from each graduating group are profiled in Appendix C. As can be derived from the profiles, upon entering the Y.O.U. program, the students tested in the extreme ranges for the measured areas. At the completion of the program, the results of the post-test demonstrated scores in the normal range.

During the retreat in 1989 and 1990, the students were again tested using the HSPQ Inventory. The results of the questionnaire illustrate that the students tested again in the normal range. Therefore, it highly suggests that the self-esteem of the Y.O.U. graduates remained stable over this two year time span.

Exit Interviews

At the end of each Y.O.U. program an exit interview (see Appendix D) was administered to the students. Whenever possible we had the persons who would be doing the Follow-up administer the interview. This increased the student familiarity with the Follow-up. Students were asked questions to determine their attitude about the Y.O.U. program and what they felt was their growth from the program. Of primary interest were the answers to question 14 "What changes have occurred for you during the Y.O.U. program?" and question 15 "What final statement would you like to make (about Y.O.U.)?"

The response to the exit interviews were generally very positive and favorable. Most of the students felt that the Y.O.U. program had been a very positive experience for them. Comments such as "it's going to help me have a better attitude about things," "I study better than before," "I'd like to return," and "I get along better with others" were very common responses.

Counselor, Parent, and Student Spring Interviews

During the spring of each year, the school counselors were asked to interview the parents, siblings, and students who graduated from the Y.O.U. programs. They also completed a self-interview. The counselors were offered a $10.00 stipend for their time and efforts in conducting each set of interviews.

The return on our spring interview was disappointing. We had a very limited return on these interviews. The first year (1989) we had approximately a 50% return rate; the second year (1990) we had approximately 20% return rate; and the third year (1991) approximately 10% return rate. Reasons for this poor return vary, some counselors chose not to participate; others had difficulty reaching the participants' families. Of the interviews that were received though the responses to the questions were similar to those in the exit interviews. The students had maintained a very positive attitude about the program and expressed their intention to complete high school.

Because of the diminishing participation and the low number of interview returns, this is a part of the future Follow-up efforts that will not be recommended for continuation. A possible mail out questionnaire with a reward for its return might be considered.

Grades and Attendance

Grades and attendance were requested from the counselors at the Y.O.U. students' respective schools on a quarterly basis. Table 1 (below) represents an average of the grade point averages (GPAs) of Y.O.U. students from each participating school by year that attended the Y.O.U. program. Also listed is a comparison of the GPAs of the year prior to their attendance in the Y.O.U. program. As can be noted by Table 1, there appear to be no significant increases or decreases in grade point averages.

TABLE 1
Grades*

School Year	1987-88	1988-89	1989-90	1990-91
	(PreYOU)	(1st year post)	(2nd year post)	(3rd year post)
1988 Group	2.76	3.23	2.65	2.70
		(PreYOU)	(1st year post)	(2nd year post)
1989 Group	----	2.28	2.19	2.30
			(PreYOU)	(1st year post
1990 Group	----	----	2.12	2.34

Data was also collected regarding the students' school attendance. Although there was a slight improvement in attendance, as can be noted in Table 2, there were no significant attendance changes. Basically, students maintained a stable attendance rate.

TABLE 2
Attendance*

School Year	1987-88	1988-89	1989-90	1990-91
	(PreYOU)	(1st year post)	(2nd year post)	(3rd year post)
1988 Group	2.76	3.23	2.65	2.70
	(PreYOU)	(1st year post)	(2nd year post)	
1989 Group	----	3.01	2.91	2.74
	(PreYOU)	(1st year post		
1990 Group	----	----	2.82	2.65

* Absences are reported in average days absent annually. A large number of the students had 0 days absent per report.

Retreat

As another part of the Follow-up, the graduates from the various Y.O.U. programs were invited back for a two-day retreat at their university campuses. Expenses were paid through the Follow-up monies.

The Y.O.U. staff transported the students to and from their hometowns and the campus. During the retreats, activities included dances, breakfasts, cookouts, and "rap" sessions in the dorms. On some campuses, the students participated in work seminars.

This was an opportunity for some campuses to retest the students using the H.S.P.Q. Inventory. As noted on page 4, the positive self-esteem measures continued.

The retreat was very successful, but expensive. The transportation and food cost may make the retreat prohibitive for persons trying to duplicate the project. It is also recommended that if one should attempt the retreat aspect of the Follow-up, only the last graduating class should be invited back. On one campus three groups were included and the age span caused some problems.

Stay-In Statistics

As mentioned earlier, the primary objective of the Y.O.U. Follow-up Program was to determine how many of the students who graduated from the Y.O.U. program stayed in school and graduated from high school. The stay in rates are reported per year, combining the results from each campus.

Of the 42 students who graduated from the 1988 program, 19 graduated from high school, 4 received General Education Diplomas (GEDs), 12 are in high school, 1 has died, 6 are not in school at this time, and the Follow-up has not lost contact with any 1988 students.

In 1989, 169 students graduated from the Arkansas Y.O.U. programs. From that group 1 has received a GED, 153 are still in school, 1 has died, and 11 are not in school at this time. We have lost contact with only 3 of the 1989 students.

In 1990, 306 students graduated from the Arkansas Y.O.U. program. From that group 291 are still in school and 8 are not in school at this time. We have lost contact with only 7 of the 1990 students.

Of the 517 students who have graduated from the Y.O.U. programs during the 1988, 1989, and 1990 years, 19 have graduated, 5 have received GED's, 458 are still in school, 2 died, and 25 are not in school at the time. We have lost contact with only 10 students as of this report.

Projects

One of the exciting aspects of research is the use of the information. We have been pleased that the Follow-up research data has been used in a number of papers, projects, and presentations.

As of June 1991, four masters thesis using the Y.O.U. Follow-up data have been proposed. Two persons interested in possibly doing doctoral dissertation have proposed using the data. Results from the follow-up have been presented at many local, state, national, and international meetings. The following are some of the organizations for which the Follow-up personnel have presented information about the program.

American Council on Rural Special Education
Arkansas Association for Counseling and Guidance Development
Association of Teacher Educators
Council for Exceptional Children
International Reading Association
International Special Education Conference
National Rural and Small School Consortium
National Speech Communication Association

XI. Conclusion

The purpose of the Follow-up is multifaceted in nature. The primary responsibility was to collect statistical information to determine if the students who completed the Y.O.U. program graduate from high school. It is the basic data used to prove the accountability of the Y.O.U. program as a drop-out prevention program. As can be noted, a 93% overall stay-in rate definitely can be seen as successful.

It was decided that in addition to the primary responsibility of collecting graduation statistics of the Y.O.U. participants, the Y.O.U. Follow-up should broaden the research to include secondary interests such as attitude, self-esteem, grades, and attendance. The grades and attendance remained stable. The self-esteem and attitudes improved and maintained positive increases.

As the data collection began, it was discovered that although primary and secondary research interests were important, the research efforts became not just a data collection effort, but a very important lifeline for the Y.O.U. students.

The Youth Opportunities Unlimited Follow-up has helped to prove the accountability of the Y.O.U. dropout prevention program, but it is also an important part of that program. We strongly endorse the continuance of the Y.O.U. program with the Follow-up component.

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RURAL ISSUES FOR CHILDREN AND FAMILIES AFFECTED BY EPILEPSY

Introduction

Epilepsy is a chronic health problem which often begins during the school years and which presents a unique set of concerns and issues for children with seizure disorders and their families. These issues may become even more troublesome for rural families who do not have access to some of the services and supports generally available in metropolitan areas. School personnel can best incorporate the child with epilepsy into the classroom and provide support for families by becoming familiar with the types of seizure disorders, the issues which epilepsy presents for children and families, and the supports which children and families need. The efforts of school personnel to assist children with epilepsy and their families can benefit students throughout their lives.

About Epilepsy

Epilepsy affects approximately 1% of the population, with a majority of cases having onset during childhood. Approximately one child in every 100 will have a seizure by the age of 14. School administrators and educators can expect the children in their schools to have epilepsy in roughly these proportions.

Epilepsy is a chronic disorder which is characterized by recurrent seizures. A seizure is a time-limited event involving involuntary behavior which results from temporary abnormal firing of neurons in the brain. There are many different kinds of seizures, and individuals with epilepsy represent a wide spectrum of disability. Later we will look at two children who have different types of seizure disorders, and will examine how their seizures affect their functioning and inclusion in the classroom. First, we need to understand a little more about seizures.

There are two basic categories of seizures, the generalized kind, which involves a temporary loss of consciousness, and the partial kind, which involve no loss of consciousness or may cause an altered state of consciousness. Within these two categories are many specific types of seizures, from the kind which cause an individual to fall to the ground with severe jerking of the muscles, to kinds which can take place without anyone else even knowing that a seizure occurred. The Seizure Recognition and First Aid chart describes the major types of seizures, what they look like, and the proper first aid for each. It is helpful for administrators and educators to be familiar with what the different types of seizures look like so that they can identify possible seizure activity in children in their schools.

For our purposes, the most important thing to know about seizures is that anything the brain can do normally during daily activities, it can do abnormally during a seizure. This means that a seizure could involve the entire body or a single body part. A seizure can involve feelings, tastes, smells, sights, sounds, or an absence of movement. The person sitting right next to you could have a seizure without you being aware of it. Understandably, this can make seizures especially difficult to detect, since they are often confused with other medical conditions or with psychotic or substance-induced behavior. Episodes might start with one kind of seizure, and then generalize into another kind. Additionally, a person can have several kinds of seizures as part of his epilepsy, or the type of seizure may change over time.

Seizure Recognition
and
First Aid

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1989

SEIZURE TYPE	WHAT IT LOOKS LIKE	WHAT IT IS NOT	WHAT TO DO	WHAT NOT TO DO
GENERALIZED TONIC-CLONIC (Also called Grand Mal)	Sudden cry, fall, rigidity, followed by muscle jerks, shallow breathing or temporarily suspended breathing, bluish skin, possible loss of bladder or bowel control. Usually lasts a couple of minutes. Normal breathing then starts again. There may be some confusion and/or fatigue, followed by return to full consciousness.	Heart Attack. Stroke.	Look for medical identification. Protect from nearby hazards. Loosen ties or shirt collars. Protect head from injury. Turn on side to keep airway clear. Reassure when consciousness returns. If single seizure lasted less than 5 minutes, ask if hospital evaluation is wanted. If multiple seizures, or if one seizure lasted more than 5 minutes, call an ambulance. If person is pregnant, injured, or diabetic, call for aid at once.	Don't put anything hard in the mouth. Don't try to hold tongue. It can't be swallowed. Don't try to give liquids during or just after seizure. Don't use artificial respiration unless breathing is absent after muscle jerks subside, or unless water has been inhaled. Don't restrain.
GENERALIZED ABSENCE (Also called Petit Mal)	A blank stare, beginning and ending abruptly, lasting only a few seconds, most common in children. May be accompanied by rapid blinking, some chewing movements of the mouth. Child is unaware of seizure, but quickly returns to full awareness once it has stopped.	Daydreaming. Lack of attention. Deliberate ignoring of adult instructions.	No first aid is necessary, but if this is the first observation of the seizure(s), medical evaluation should be recommended.	
COMPLEX PARTIAL (Also called Temporal Lobe or Psychomotor)	Usually starts with blank stare, followed by chewing, followed by random activity. Person appears unaware of surroundings, may seem dazed, and mumble. Unresponsive. Actions clumsy, not directed. May pick at clothing, pick up objects, try to take clothes off. May run, appear afraid. May struggle or flail at restraint. Once pattern is established, same set of actions usually occurs with each seizure. Automatic behavior usually the same with each seizure. Lasts a few minutes, but post-seizure confusion can last substantially longer. No memory of what happened during seizure period.	Drunkenness. Intoxication on drugs. Mental illness. Disorderly conduct.	Speak calmly and reassuringly to patient and others. Guide gently away from obvious hazards. Stay with person until completely aware of environment. Offer to help getting home.	Don't grab hold unless sudden danger (such as a cliff edge or an approaching car) threatens. Don't try to restrain. Don't shout. Don't expect verbal instructions to be obeyed.
SIMPLE PARTIAL	Jerking may begin in one area of body, arm, leg, or face. Can't be stopped, but patient stays awake and aware. Jerking may proceed from one area of the body to another, and sometimes spreads to become a convulsive seizure. Partial sensory seizures may not be obvious to an onlooker. Patient experiences a distorted environment. May see or hear things that aren't there, may feel unexplained fear, sadness, anger, or joy. May have nausea, experience odd smells, and have a generally "funny" feeling in the stomach.	Acting out, bizarre behavior. Hysteria. Mental illness. Psychosomatic illness. Para-psychological experience.	No first aid necessary unless seizure becomes convulsive, then first aid as with Complex Partial. No immediate action needed other than reassurance and emotional support. Medical evaluation should be recommended.	
ATONIC SEIZURES (Also called Drop Attacks)	A child or adult suddenly collapses and falls. After 10 seconds to a minute he recovers, regains consciousness, and can stand and walk again.	Clumsiness. Normal childhood "stage" in a child, lack of good walking skills. In an adult, drunkenness, acute illness.	No first aid needed unless he hurt himself as he fell, but the child should be given a thorough medical evaluation.	
MYOCLONIC SEIZURES	Sudden brief, massive muscle jerks that may involve the whole body or parts of the body. May cause person to spill what they were holding or fall off a chair.	Clumsiness. Poor coordination.	No first aid needed, but should be given a thorough medical evaluation.	
INFANTILE SPASMS	These are clusters of quick, sudden movements that start between 3 months and 2 years. If a child is sitting up, the head will fall forward, and the arms will flex forward. If lying down, the knees will be drawn up, with arms and head flexed forward as if the baby is reaching for support.	Normal movements of the baby. Colic.	No first aid, but doctors should be consulted.	

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The Effect of Epilepsy on Children

After this quick review of the variety of ways seizures can manifest themselves, it is understandable that epilepsy can have a very serious impact on children with seizure disorders and their families. Let's consider first the unique nature and social consequences of epilepsy.

Seizures are events which are uncontrollable, unpredictable, and adversive. They are caused by electrical events in the brain which the individual cannot predict or control. Individuals with seizures and those around them have little ability to make adaptations to the environment. Moreover, due to the social history and negative beliefs held about epilepsy, important life events including social relationships, integration with peers, and employment may become compromised. The effects of seizures themselves are physical, emotional, psychological, behavioral, and cognitive. Seizures can affect an individual's ability to function in every area of life activity.

The following misconceptions about epilepsy are still common today:

- **Individuals with epilepsy are mentally retarded**. Actually, intelligence among individuals with epilepsy does not differ significantly from intelligence among the general population. Although seizures or medication side effects may interfere with learning, IQ among individuals with epilepsy follows the same bell-shaped curve as among other individuals.

- **Individuals with epilepsy are mentally ill**. There is no relationship between epilepsy and mental illness. Epilepsy and mental illness are separate conditions. Some types of seizures may involve phenomenon which seem like mental illness (seeing things, hearing things) but they are not related to mental illness in any way.

- **Epilepsy is contagious**. Epilepsy is a symptom of brain dysfunction and cannot be passed from one person to another as a contagious illness can be.

- **Individuals with epilepsy should be placed in separate learning and living situations to provide the special care that they need**. Most individuals with epilepsy have well controlled seizures and live normal lives. They are able to go to school with their peers, work with their peers, and make contributions to the community. Even those individuals whose seizures are poorly controlled do better, achieve more, and have a better quality of life when integrated with their peers than when segregated. There is no reason to separate a person with epilepsy from his or her peers.

- **People with epilepsy should not participate in sports or other vigorous activities**. In most cases, individuals with epilepsy can participate in just about every activity that individuals without epilepsy enjoy. Some activities might need to be adapted to make them safer in the event of a seizure, but almost all activities can be participated in at some level.

These misconceptions can have a profound impact on an individual with epilepsy, creating negative beliefs and opinions which compromise the individual's ability to participate actively in social and school activities.

Another aspect of epilepsy which significantly affects individuals with seizure disorders is its hidden nature. You can't tell by looking at someone that they have epilepsy. While it may seem that this would be a benefit, a major drawback is that it is difficult to receive social support when others cannot tell that you are in need of it. No one else knows that constantly, in the back of your mind, is the knowledge that a seizure could happen at any time. One nine year old girl described it as feeling like you're walking around with a bomb in your head which could explode at any moment.

Another issue is the loss of personal control which seizures involve. One minute the individual is functioning in their usual, goal-directed way and then, for no reason at all, the next minute they lose control. Since others make judgments about us based upon our ability to behave within certain parameters, this inability to count on an individual with epilepsy to always behave within these parameters, compounded by the fact that seizures manifest themselves in an infinite variety of ways, makes epilepsy frightening.

Now that we have a basic understanding of the unique nature of epilepsy, some of the misconceptions that face individuals with seizure disorders, and social consequences of seizures themselves, let's look at what happens to the child and the family when a child has epilepsy. First, depending on the type of seizure that the child has, epilepsy may be the furthest thing from the family's mind when they begin to notice a problem. Consider the types of seizures described on the chart: some are characterized by a blank stare ("He's daydreaming again!"), some are characterized by simple movements of one body part ("He has this twitch in his thumb every now and then."), some involve more complex movements of the individual ("He's hyperactive -- sometimes he just walks around in circles."), and some involve the senses ("He's having hallucinations." or "He gets these sudden stomach aches."). Depending on the initial complaint, the family and the family doctor will pursue treatment which seems appropriate for the problem. The difficulty in diagnosing many types of seizures often involves a lengthy, frustrating process in which parents or even the child himself may be disbelieved, accused of wrong-doing, or assumed to have psychological or behavioral problems. Through EFA's Parent and Family Network and national toll-free information and referral line, we have heard repeated stories of families starting with a doubtful family doctor, then going from one specialist to another, with children undergoing series after series of tests and hospitalizations for years at a time before a diagnosis is finally made. Currently, there is no one definitive medical test for epilepsy. Diagnosis is primarily based upon descriptions or observations of symptoms, and the clinical history of the child. This process in itself creates a tremendous amount of stress for the child and the family.

Once a diagnosis of epilepsy has finally been made, the difficulties for children and families don't end. There is often a lengthy process of trying different medications and dosage levels before the most effective combination can be achieved, during which time seizure activity continues at various levels and with various medication side effects. The repeated rising of the family's hopes as a new medication is tried, the pain and anxiety of dealing with side effects, the eventual disappointment and the need to try something else, creates an emotional roller-coaster for the child and family alike. Add to this the fact that changes in the child's body chemistry, which are a normal part of growth and development, wreak havoc with medication and can repeatedly throw a family back into the process of trying to find the right medication and the right dosage.

Earlier we discussed the inability to know when a seizure may occur, and the difficulty which this causes for individuals with epilepsy. In children, this creates a constant anxiety because of their concern for what may happen during a seizure and how their peers will react. Children and parents have frequently expressed that the fear of a seizure occurring is often more debilitating than the occurrence of a seizure itself. Even when children have achieved good control of seizure activity, the fear that a seizure could break through at any time is always present. Parents, extended family members, and others in the child's environment tend to be very protective of a child with a history of epilepsy, curtailing normal activities for fear of a seizure. The constant state of worry and fear is taxing on everyone, and can interfere with daily activities and relationships with others.

As we discussed earlier, misconceptions about epilepsy can be extremely damaging. Stories that other children have heard can make it very difficult for the child to make friends. Children may taunt the child with epilepsy, gossip quietly among themselves, or simply shun the affected child. Some seizures involve behavior which can be embarrassing and which other children may perceive as bizarre. Other children may wonder at the child with epilepsy's inability to control his or her own behavior.

Finally, scholastic difficulties ranging from very minor memory problems to severely impaired scholastic functioning are common among children with epilepsy. Although most children have relatively uncomplicated epilepsy, with good seizure control and minimal or no side effects, there are those children whose epilepsy interferes with daily functioning. At the very least, a child who has several seizures a week or a day has many interruptions in the learning process. Children may have to come to school late or miss a day of school due to a seizure. Even very brief but frequent staring spells interrupt the flow of information to a child and may cause learning difficulties.

Even those children whose seizures are well controlled by medication may have scholastic difficulties. Although current research is not definitive about how they are related, we know that children with seizure disorders are somewhat more inclined to have learning differences than those without epilepsy. It may be that the underlying cause of the seizures is responsible for the learning differences, which may include short-term memory loss and difficulties processing information. While their abilities in terms of intelligence are generally average, these students may need to have information repeated to them or may require presentation of material in alternative ways. Additionally, children may find it hard to concentrate on work because of their concern for how they are perceived by their peers, or due to the fear that a seizure might occur at any moment. Side effects of medication, which may include drowsiness, poor coordination, irritability, mood swings, lethargy and hostility, can make it difficult for the child to concentrate on school work. Additionally, the child's ability to concentrate may vary throughout the day as the medication reaches different levels in the child's bloodstream.

Case Studies

Although most children with epilepsy do not have other disabilities, it's important to recognize that epilepsy does occur in association with other disabilities. Epilepsy occurs in 30% of children with cerebral palsy; 9-32% of children with mental retardation; 50% of children who have both cerebral palsy and mental retardation; and 11-35% of children with autism. This means than children in special education classes or children with a primary diagnosis other than epilepsy may also have seizure disorders which are affecting their ability to function in the classroom and their social interactions.

Even those children without other disabilities can be compromised to some degree by their epilepsy. To better understand the wide spectrum of difficulties which children with epilepsy may have, and to see how the various issues may interact, let's look at a couple of children and their seizure disorders. Neither of the children described below have a diagnosis of other disabilities in addition to epilepsy.

Michele is thirteen years old. She has several different kinds of seizures. One of the kinds of seizures she has makes her suddenly fall to the ground, which means that she has to wear a helmet. Michele has an IQ of 90 but has difficulty learning because her concentration and attention is affected by daily absence seizures. Michele is able to walk without assistance but her gait is clearly affected by the antiepileptic medication she must take. Michele attends all special education classes at her public school and her only peer interaction is with other individuals with disabilities. Michele is argumentative, seldom smiles, and has generally poor social skills. She hates her helmet because she can't style her hair, wants to wear make-up, fears that she will never have a boyfriend, and believes that every time she walks through the hall at school the other kids are talking about her. Michele's parents have suggested that she might respond well to participating in some classes with students without disabilities, but the school principal feels that Michele is safer and that they are better able to deal with the possibility of a seizure in the special education classroom. Besides, with her poor social skills she would be likely to ostracize herself even more if she were in classes with other students.

Paul is a seven year old boy. Since the age of five he has had seizures during which he typically becomes very emotional, crying and alternately clinging to and pushing away from whoever is near him. Paul may get up and walk, seems unaware of his surroundings, and cannot respond to other people during the seizure. He is currently taking two kinds of medications which make him drowsy but which do not control the seizures well. Paul seems to have difficulty reading for extended periods of time, complains of headaches, double vision, and twitches in his eyes. He feels that he learns more easily when his mother reads his textbooks aloud and discusses the material with him. Although of average intelligence, Paul is doing poorly in school. He is in a regular education classroom and has no friends in the class. Paul's teacher is aware of his seizures, but has not shared the diagnosis with the other children at the request of Paul's parents. If you ask the other children about Paul, they are likely to say that he is "crazy."

These cases illustrate just a few of the various effects which epilepsy can have on a child. In spite of the myriad issues which can affect children with epilepsy, most children with seizure disorders adapt well and have the ability to do at least satisfactory work in school. The difficulties which the children described above experience can be partially alleviated by school personnel who work with the child and family to find solutions to the issues.

We will revisit Michele and Paul a little later.

Rural Living and Epilepsy

Rural living presents opportunities for a wide range of experiences and support, for all children, which are often not as readily available in urban or suburban environments. Likewise, there can be drawbacks to living in a rural area with reduced access to some of the services available in more metropolitan areas. Let's take a moment to look at the benefits of rural living for children for children with epilepsy, along with some of the drawbacks.

One of the unique characteristics of rural living is the close-knit community which generally develops in spite of tremendous distances separating families from one another. Unlike in busy metropolitan areas, where one can live for years in an apartment and never meet the person living on the opposite side of the wall, rural families are likely to call anyone living within a ten mile radius "neighbor." Popping into each other's homes while passing by is far more common in rural than in metropolitan areas, as are informal gatherings for the purposes of socializing and enjoying one another's company. Families tend to know each other better and pitch in to help each other more in rural communities than in urban ones. The extended network of family and friends throughout the area provides a richness of experience and opportunities to support one another that is often lacking in the big city, and which can be especially beneficial to families affected by epilepsy.

Another characteristic of rural communities is the focus of attention on two primary systems, the church and the school. Unlike in urban areas where there is often a profusion of community centers, social service organizations, clubs, and gathering places, activities in rural areas often are initiated through one of these two systems. This provides clergy and school personnel with a unique ability to offer support, information, and opportunities for learning. Likewise, clergy and school personnel play a greater variety of roles in the lives of individuals and families than they would likely play in an urban area. They may be approached not only with matters of religion and learning, but with marital difficulties, financial concerns, requests to settle an argument with a neighbor, and a whole host of presenting problems. The tremendous opportunity to help and support individuals and families is accompanied by a great deal of responsibility.

The school system combines both of these factors to provide a cohesive learning environment which is at once structured and supportive. Rural schools generally have a smaller number of teachers who know each other well and provide support and information to each other. Teachers, counselors and administrators work well together as a team and share information about students and how they feel they can best support them. Children are individuals who are known by all school personnel, from the cafeteria workers to the school administrator. This team approach to working with a child can be especially beneficial to a child with a disability or a chronic illess such as epilepsy. The rural school is able to play a unique role, providing support, encouragement, and direction.

These characteristics of rural living and in particular, rural schools, can be extremely beneficial to the child with epilepsy. Unfortunately, there are also drawbacks to rural living which may compound some of the difficulties of children with epilepsy and their families. Let's take a moment to look at how living in a rural area might make some of those issues even more difficult to address.

The first issue which we discussed was the unique nature of epilepsy and the social consequences of the disorder. The key to alleviating some of the social consequences is information. Both of the children discussed in the previous case studies could have improvement in school life and performance if their peers and educators had factual information about epilepsy and its effects. Unfortunately, rural living makes it more difficult to access resources which could provide this information. Human service or health organizations which have a specialization in understanding seizure disorders may be hundreds of miles away. Local doctors or other health professionals often have only very limited time for presentations to schools, and most likely will have only received a very small amount of information about epilepsy during their training. Finding an individual with current information about the wide variety of seizures and the broad spectrum of associated disability, who is able to present the material in the appropriate manner, can be difficult even in a metropolitan area with vast resources. This difficulty is much greater in rural areas.

Associated with the need for information is the need for support from others affected by epilepsy. Although the wonderful network of friends and family in rural areas can provide tremendous support, families tell us that they want to talk to other parents whose children have epilepsy, preferably parents whose child is around the same age and has the same type of seizures or associated disabilities. They may feel embarrassed about the condition or believe that others would not understand, resulting in a reluctance to reach out to others in their community. Talking with other parents and learning how they coped with the diagnosis helps families to feel empowered to deal with the condition and lets them know that they are not alone. Children need contact with other children who have epilepsy, to discuss their feelings and their hopes. In rural areas, finding other families affected by epilepsy can be next to impossible.

The second problem which was discussed was that of diagnosis. The difficulty in finding a doctor who will listen seriously to the family's description of the problem, the need to visit numerous sites to undergo medical tests, and the process of finding appropriate medical care once a diagnosis is made are all extremely frustrating in a large city with state-of-the-art facilities. In rural areas a general practitioner with little training in seizure disorders may be the only doctor available. Again, depending on the type of symptom being described, the doctor may recommend a psychologist, psychiatrist, cardiologist, urologist, or an optometrist. The family might be referred to specialists who are far from their homes, and still may not be seeing the right kind of specialist. Traveling to various cities means the child misses school, the parent(s) miss time from work, care for other children has to be arranged, and the entire family is exhausted. Eventually, the family may find its way to a pediatric neurologist four hours away who finally diagnoses epilepsy. Even then, this doctor may not be someone with whom the family feels comfortable or who cannot provide the quality of medical care the family would like. Finding a physician who listens, who seems knowledgeable about the specific seizure type of the child, and with whom the family feels a partner in medical care is very important, and may take quite some time after initial diagnosis is made.

All of these problems are associated with distance, and are difficult to overcome for the rural family with significant resources in terms of education, finances, job stability, communication abilities, and transportation. Let's take a moment to consider this in association with what we know to be common characteristics of rural families. First and foremost, we know that rural families have less of a tendency to be in contact with organizations or groups outside of their own community, and therefore lack some of the information available through those channels. Rural areas may have their own culture and social system. The church, which plays such an important role in supporting rural families, may be turned to instead of seeking medical care. Especially for families who have not received much information about epilepsy, the individual displaying "different" behavior might be brought to the church community for prayers because the problem does not appear to be a medical one. Cultural beliefs may also encourage families to keep the individual who is "different" at home and to deal with the problem through the extended system of family and friends, thus making it less likely that medical treatment and support from others affected by epilepsy would be provided. Language barriers might also be present. The inability to communicate comfortably with doctors and human service providers may make these families less likely to seek assistance for a problem as inexplicable as seizures seem.

Finally, finances represent a serious obstacle for the rural family in need of specialized medical services. Let's go back to the stage of diagnosis. We discussed how families generally move from doctor to doctor, specialist to specialist before finally getting a diagnosis of epilepsy. The cost of traveling, staying in hotels while tests are run, and providing for the needs of other children during the trip are exorbitant. Middle-income and affluent families find that these necessary visits take a large bite out of savings or other resources. For the rural family with a low income, these costs may make the trips impossible. This is assuming that the family has insurance coverage. The cost of the medical care alone, even if it were in the vicinity, would be prohibitive to a family without health insurance. Assuming that the family is able to find transportation and the money needed to make the trips to obtain a diagnosis, they may not be able to afford ongoing care or quality care after the diagnosis is made. Changes in seizure type or severity may go without further treatment, and the family may not be able to take advantage of new medications or medical breakthroughs which might offer new hope for the disorder. In any case, the rural family may be devastated by the medical bills and cost of travel.

Each of these potential issues of rural families, taken alone, can make it extremely difficult for the family to adjust to the disorder and for the child to achieve his or her potential in school. Taken together, these difficulties can lead to a range of problems, from family dysfunction to severe depression or behavioral problems in the child with epilepsy. Take just a moment to consider how a child with epilepsy must feel when he sees his entire family turned upside down emotionally, financially, and structurally by his disorder; when his classmates and sometimes school personnel respond negatively to his problems associated with the seizure disorder; and when he is unable to exercise control over himself or his environment. Appropriate support for the child and the family can make a tremendous amount of difference for everyone involved.

What Can We Do?

We've spent quite a bit of time becoming familiar with the types of seizure disorders, the associated disabilities, the effects which epilepsy can have on the child and the family, and the way rural living may help or compound some of those effects. Understanding epilepsy is the first step in providing the support which the child and the family needs. The school system cannot possibly be expected to alleviate all of the problems of the rural family coping with epilepsy. Because of their unique position in the community and in the life of the child, however, school administrators and educators can provide the support and assistance the child with epilepsy needs to achieve scholastically and socially, while helping the family to adapt to the disorder by providing support during regular interactions with family members.

Let's go back to the youngsters with epilepsy discussed earlier. Michele may be correct in thinking that the other children are looking at her "funny" when she walks down the hall. An information seminar provided to the entire school about epilepsy and associated problems would be a good starting point. It seems that for Michele, integration with her peers is a critical step. Her parents had already tentatively broached this subject, but understood the school administrator's concern for Michele's well-being and desire to keep her in a protected environment. This is actually an excellent opportunity for the school administrator to take a strong stand on integration of children with epilepsy and other disabilities. Michele's segregation is clearly not benefitting her, as she is doing less well scholastically and socially than we would expect of a child with her capabilities. Michele has few seizures, and wears headgear to protect her in the event of a seizure. The potential risk of harm to Michele seems small in comparison to the benefits. Prior to and during her transition into some regular education classes, it would be important for Michele to have a member of the school staff spend time alone with her talking about how she feels about her disorder and working on socialization skills. Extensive knowledge of epilepsy is not necessary for someone to be the compassionate, listening ear which Michele needs. Michele's parent(s) might be asked if the neurologist has considered reducing her medication or considering whether she still needs to wear the helmet. Naturally, this discussion would have to be carefully handled in order to not compromise the school's relationship with the family or the family's relationship with the neurologist. Helping Michele to feel as "normal" as possible could be the key to helping her reach her potential.

The case of Paul is somewhat different. Paul is already integrated with his peers. He looks like everyone else except when he has a seizure. Again, providing information is an important first step to helping the other children to understand what is going on with Paul. School personnel would need to meet with Paul's family and explain what they have observed. Expressing an understanding of what the family may be experiencing may help to gain their permission to discuss Paul's epilepsy with the class. The Epilepsy Foundation of America has several excellent videos for young children about epilepsy which could help to explain the condition to Paul's classmates and school personnel. By helping Paul and his classmates to interact positively regarding his seizures, he can be better integrated into the classroom. Paul's parents may also want to consult with their physician about the effects of the medication on his school work. The dosage might be able to be reduced or perhaps the times when it is taken changed so that the effect during school isn't as great. The clue that Paul has given about his discomfort when reading might be a signal to Paul's teachers or administrator that he has difficulty processing information which he reads, and an alternative system can be set up for him to gain information. By involving Paul's parents and doctor, teachers and administrators can help to overcome some of the obstacles to Paul's success.

In both of these cases, the understanding of the educator and administrators of what the child and the family are going through are paramount to providing support and assistance. The knowledge that the family may be faced with overwhelming emotional, financial, and logistical problems can help the school staff to be understanding and supportive of issues which arise such as the child missing school, the family not being able to participate in bake-sales or other school activities, or even the family's reluctance to talk about the child's epilepsy. Each family is at a different place in dealing with the disorder, and should be approached with a willingness to listen and help without pushing the family to take steps before they are ready. Sending encouraging notes home, offering any materials about epilepsy or seizures which might be available, and providing resources that might be helpful can go a long way to helping families feel less isolated and more willing to reach out for support.

Another important aspect of the intervention planned by the team of school personnel is the effort to make the child with epilepsy and the epilepsy itself an accepted part of life for everyone in the school. Complete integration of children with epilepsy is critical to alleviating some of the stigma and "differentness" these children feel. Providing epilepsy education programs to the students and staff helps them to understand epilepsy as just another aspect of the student which should not interfere with their inclusion, like having brown hair or blue eyes. For the child with epilepsy, having the seizure disorder talked about in an open and sensitive way helps to alleviate some of the fear of what others might think and may help the child to feel less "different." It is important to help everyone in the child's environment to recognize that the child with epilepsy is just like everyone else, with unique qualities and the ability to contribute to and be a valuable part of the community.

Individuals affected by epilepsy and their families have expressed a great need to have information about the disorder and about medical facilities specializing in epilepsy, and to have contact with other families affected by epilepsy. The Epilepsy Foundation of America has a national toll-free information and referral line which can provide families with a wealth of information. This toll-free service, 1-800-EFA-1000, can provide information about affiliates of the Foundation which may serve the area, or support groups located in the vicinity. Medical facilities in towns and cities as close as possible to the family can be identified. Information about epilepsy and its effects can be provided to the family, the child, or to school personnel. A variety of videotapes and brochures are available through the Foundation's Catalog Sales Department to help teach students and faculty about seizure disorders. An educational program called "Count Me In!" is available especially for use by school nurses, and can be shared by several school nurses in one county or state. These are some of the resources available to rural families, and educators can play a role in helping to connect families to these resources. Naturally, one of the greatest resources the child with epilepsy and his or her family can have is the faculty at the child's school. Educators and administrators who are informed about what issues the family may be facing and how epilepsy may be impacting a child can provide the understanding, support, willingness to help, and intervention in the school which children and families say make all the difference in the world.

INTENSIVE FAMILY BASED SERVICES THAT WORK IN DEALING WITH HIGH RISK STUDENTS AND DYSFUNCTIONAL FAMILIES

William Young & Linda Steck
SERTCC

HISTORY/ORGANIZATION/GRANT

The Southeast Regional Troubled Children's Committee. Inc. (SERTCC) has been in existence since 1985. The involvement of SERTCC initially was with an understanding that cooperative agreements between the six divisions of the Department of Human Resources and Education would come about. This working together would assist in providing community resources to serve troubled children at the local and regional level. At it's beginning there was some indication that State Troubled Children money might be decentralized and given to regional and/or local committees to make decisions on services for troubled children. Since this concept did not materialize, SERTCC has continued to move forward in helping local troubled children committees form and become functional agencies within each of the twenty-four counties that is served by SERTCC.

In addition SERTCC received an NIMH grant from the Federal Government with the cooperation of the State Department of Human Resources (Division of Mental Health) to provide services to troubled children and their family in the twenty-four county area. By providing intensive family-based services within the homes of dysfunctional families, we have been able to keep families together and prevent out-of-home placement. As of this date, we have served families in twenty-two of the twenty-four counties located in Southeast Georgia. Our statistics show, through five years, that one hundred twenty-nine (129) children have been served along with four hundred ninety-eight (498) family members. As you are aware, when you are dealing with a troubled child in a dysfunctional family, you are really dealing with the entire family unit.

COST EFFECTIVENESS:

As of this writing, we have been successful in keeping children in the home and have the family unit functioning after the twelve weeks of service at a success rate of eighty percent (80%).

COST OF INTENSIVE FAMILY-BASED SERVICES - $3,376.00
(SERVICE PROVIDER GOES INTO HOME OVER A TWELVE (12) WEEK PERIOD OF TIME)

VERSUS

INTERMEDIATE CARE PLACEMENT - $ 7.540.00

VERSUS

INTENSIVE CARE PLACEMENT - $16.395.00
(12 WEEKS)

FOLLOW-UP OF SERVICES PROVIDED:

A four year follow-up was conducted by the program evaluator. Follow-up data included input from the agencies involved as well as the parents of the troubled child. Data covered the time period up to a year after services were terminated.

STATUS AND FUTURE PLANS:

The families of Southeast Georgia are gratified that Governor, Zell Miller, thought highly enough of our program to include it in the FY-93 budget and again in the FY-94 budget. We believe that the type of services and the way they have been administered is a cost effective alternative to other, more expensive and intrusive options for troubled children.

SERTCC, Inc. has been granted 501-c3 status which allows us to submit proposals for foundation grants since the NIMH grant ran out in July of 1992. May I suggest that SERTCC is also available to receive any contracted services from other agencies that deal with dysfunctional families and troubled children. This purchase of services is cost efficient and effective as compared to intensive and intermediate care and you will be keeping the family together. Our success rate is outstanding.

The general membership meets quarterly with the officer and board meeting monthly to provide direction and leadership not only to the general members but also to service providers who are doing the important work with these dysfunctional families and their troubled children. As you can see, our commitment to troubled children in the area is just as strong as ever and we feel like we are making a real difference with the families that we are involved with in providing in-home services.

CAN SERTCC, INC. COME TO MY AREA?

We believe the SERTCC concepts interagency collaboration for the purpose of providing:

a) Professional Staff Development
b) Quarterly Staff Networking
c) Intensive Family-Based Services for Multiple Service Areas

can be replicated effectively by adapting the concept to match the needs of your area. For additional information contact: Dr. William F. Young -- 2400 Reynolds Street - Brunswick, Ga. 31520 (912) 267-4220.

CLIENT STATISTICS
1987-1988

CHILD REFERRED

BLACK MALE	BLACK FEMALE	WHITE MALE	WHITE FEMALE	TOTAL
6	2	12	5	25

PARENT/GUARDIAN

MOTHER	FATHER	BOTH	OTHER
11	2	6	3

AVERAGE AGE OF CHILD

12.8

AVERAGE INTERVENTION PERIOD

7 WEEKS

REFERRING AGENCIES

MH	DFCS	PSYCHOED	SCHOOLS	DYS
7	5	3	3	5

NUMBER OF FAMILY MEMBERS SERVED

91

COUNTIES SERVED

CAMDEN	1
CANDLER	1
CHATHAM	6
GLYNN	4
LIBERTY	1
PIERCE	1
TATTNALL	7
WARE	1
WAYNE	2

OUTCOMES AT CONCLUSION OF SERVICES

CHILDREN REMAINING AT HOME	17
CHILDREN LIVING WITH RELATIVES	1
CHILDREN REMAINING WITH FOSTER FAMILY	1
CHILDREN PLACED OUT OF HOME	6
NIMH FUNDS AVAILABLE FOR CURRENT YEAR	$115,578.14
AVERAGE COST PER FAMILY	$4,623.12

CLIENT STATISTICS
1988-1989

CHILD REFERRED

BLACK MALE	BLACK FEMALE	WHITE MALE	WHITE FEMALE	NATIVE AMERICAN MALE	TOTAL
6	1	4	3	1	15

PARENT/GUARDIAN

MOTHER	FATHER	BOTH	OTHER
8	2	2	3

AVERAGE AGE OF CHILD

10

AVERAGE INTERVENTION PERIOD

8 WEEKS

REFERRING AGENCIES

MH	DFCS	PSYCHOED	SCHOOLS	DYS
6	3	2	2	2

NUMBER OF FAMILY MEMBERS SERVED

51

COUNTIES SERVED

BULLOCH	1
CHATHAM	3
GLYNN	2
TATTNALL	7
TOOMBS	2

OUTCOMES AT CONCLUSION OF SERVICES

CHILDREN REMAINING AT HOME	13
CHILDREN LIVING WITH RELATIVES	1
CHILDREN REMAINING WITH FOSTER FAMILY	1
CHILDREN CURRENTLY BEING SERVED	5
NIMH FUNDS AVAILABLE FOR CURRENT YEAR	$ 84,421.86
AVERAGE COST PER FAMILY	$5,628.12

CLIENT STATISTICS
1989-1990

CHILD REFERRED

BLACK MALE	BLACK FEMALE	WHITE MALE	WHITE FEMALE	TOTAL
15	4	19	10	48

PARENT/GUARDIAN

MOTHER	FATHER	BOTH	OTHER
30	4	11	3

AVERAGE AGE OF CHILD

12.2

AVERAGE INTERVENTION PERIOD

12 WEEKS

REFERRING AGENCIES

MH	DFCS	PSYCHOED	SCHOOLS	DYS
13	8	11	9	4

NUMBER OF FAMILY MEMBERS SERVED

200

COUNTIES SERVED

GLYNN	21
BULLOCH	2
BRYAN	1
CAMDEN	1
CHARLTON	2
CHATHAM	4
EVANS	1
JEFF DAVIS	1
LIBERTY	2
MCINTOSH	2
PIERCE	1
TATTNALL	6
TOOMBS	4

OUTCOMES AT CONCLUSION OF SERVICES

CHILDREN REMAINING AT HOME	40
CHILDREN SERVED WITH STATE FUNDS *	12
CHILDREN PLACED OUT OF THE HOME	3
CHILDREN CURRENTLY BEING SERVED	5
STATE FUNDS AVAILABLE FOR CURRENT YEAR	$25,000.00
NIMH FUNDS AVAILABLE FOR CURRENT YEAR	$140,450.00
AVERAGE COST PER FAMILY	$3,601.82

CLIENT STATISTICS
1990-1991

CHILD REFERRED

BLACK MALE	BLACK FEMALE	WHITE MALE	WHITE FEMALE	HISPANIC MALE	TOTAL
8	1	9	4	1	23

PARENT/GUARDIAN

MOTHER	FATHER	BOTH	OTHER
11	1	9	1

AVERAGE AGE OF CHILD	AVERAGE INTERVENTION PERIOD	NUMBER OF FAMILY MEMBERS SERVED
11.9	8 WEEKS	89

REFERRING AGENCIES

MH	DFCS	PSYCHOED	SCHOOLS	DYS
7	4	6	4	2

COUNTIES SERVED

GLYNN	13
BRYAN	1
CAMDEN	1
CHARLTON	2
CHATHAM	1
EVANS	1
LIBERTY	1
MCINTOSH	2
TOOMBS	1

OUTCOMES AT CONCLUSION OF SERVICES

CHILDREN REMAINING AT HOME	18
CHILDREN PLACED OUT OF THE HOME	2
CHILDREN PLACED WITH OTHER FAMILY	1
CHILDREN CURRENTLY BEING SERVED	2
NIMH FUNDS AVAILABLE FOR CURRENT YEAR	$100,000.00
AVERAGE COST PER FAMILY	$4,347.83

CLIENT STATISTICS
1991-1992

CHILD REFERRED

BLACK MALE	BLACK FEMALE	WHITE MALE	WHITE FEMALE	TOTAL
4	3	9	2	18

PARENT/GUARDIAN

MOTHER	FATHER	BOTH	OTHER
9	0	1	8

AVERAGE AGE OF CHILD

11.67

AVERAGE INTERVENTION PERIOD

12 WEEKS

REFERRING AGENCIES

MH	DFCS	PSYCHOED	SCHOOLS	DYS	OTHER
5	4	1	5	2	1

NUMBER OF FAMILY MEMBERS SERVED

67

COUNTIES SERVED

BULLOCH	1
CHATHAM	5
COFFEE	1
EFFINGHAM	1
GLYNN	3
LIBERTY	2
MCINTOSH	1
TATTNALL	2
WARE	2

OUTCOMES AT CONCLUSION OF SERVICES

CHILDREN REMAINING AT HOME	15
CHILDREN PLACED OUT OF HOME	3
NIMH FUNDS AVAILABLE FOR CURRENT YEAR	$92,000.00
AVERAGE COST PER TOTAL FAMILY MEMBER	$1,373.13

SOUTHEAST REGIONAL TROUBLED CHILDREN'S COMMITTEE, INC.
2400 Reynolds Street
Brunswick, Georgia 31520

INTENSIVE FAMILY BASED SERVICES

SERVICE PROVIDER DUTIES

1. FAMILY COUNSELING: To include any of the following:
    - A. Crisis intervention
    - B. Counseling to strengthen martial unit and to help husband and wife in parental roles.
    - C. Counseling to single parent or other guardian in order to strengthen and structure positive parenting techniques and teach behavior management techniques where needed.
    - D. Counseling to help organize and structure family unit through more specifically clarifying roles, setting limits, and more clearly defining the behavioral expectations of one another.
    - E. Teach communication skills and problem solving.
    - F. Teach parenting skills such as child growth and development, child caring techniques, infant stimulation, toilet training and accident prevention.
    - G. Teach stress management techniques such as coping skills, anger control and relaxation.
    - H. Teach organizational skills such as money management, time management and scheduling.
    - I. Counsel to help stabilize living arrangements.
    - J. Counsel individual member or family as a whole about needs for long term therapy.

2. MAINTAIN CASE FILE

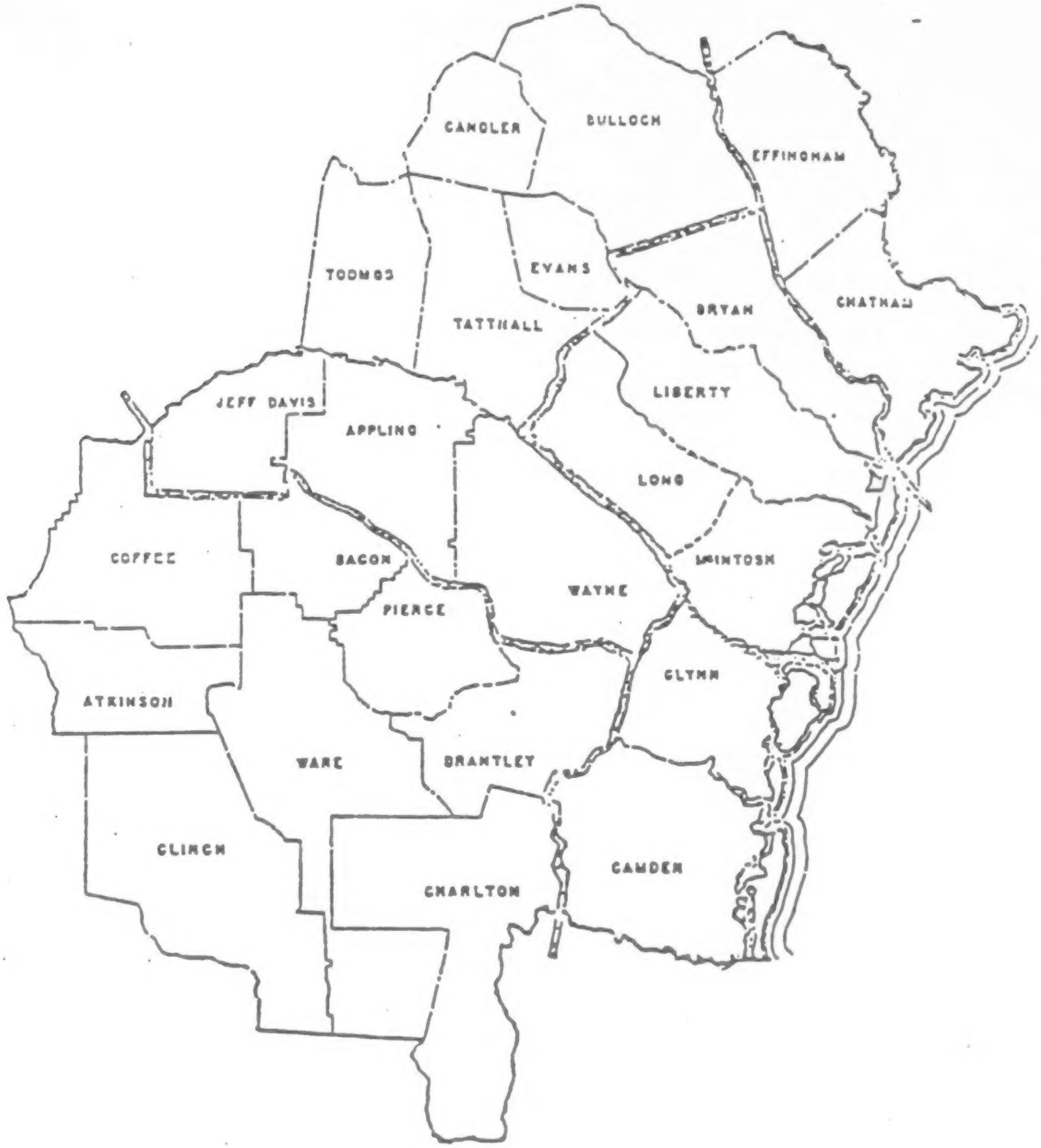
    - A. Obtain and maintain all necessary documentation in case file.
    - B. Provide: Initial Assessment Summary (Blue), Monthly Summary (Green), Final Case Summary (Yellow), Follow-up Summary (Pink) to SERTCC Chairman - 2400 Reynolds Street - Brunswick, GA. 31520. (See attached)
    - C. Obtain all necessary release of information signatures and send to SERTCC to be placed in permanent file.
    - D. Ensure all reports and records necessary for referrals to other agencies are complete.

3. COORDINATE COMMUNITY RESOURCES

    - A. Act as a referring agent and liaison between family and community resources.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

TWENTY-FOUR COUNTIES SERVED BY SERTCC


CANDLER
BULLOCH
EFFINGHAM
TOOMBS
EVANS
BRYAN
CHATHAM
TATTNALL
LIBERTY
JEFF DAVIS
APPLING
LONG
COFFEE
BACON
McINTOSH
WAYNE
PIERCE
ATKINSON
GLYNN
WARE
BRANTLEY
CLINCH
CAMDEN
CHARLTON

Gretchen Butera
West Virginia University

Practitioner Perspectives of Early Childhood Special Educators: Implications for Personnel Preparation

Both theoretical constructs and policy initiatives in early intervention are ultimately defined through the efforts of practitioners. It is the role of the practitioner to translate policy and theory into educational programs and activities that will help to bring about optimal growth and development in the young children they serve. Similarly, personnel preparation programs must translate theory and policy issues into programs and activities that will prepare professionals to assume the roles that are required. However, the processes of optimal professional preparation of early childhood special educators in rural settings are poorly understood in part because the roles of early childhood special educators are rapidly evolving and are very different from the roles of special educators who work with school-age children.

Continuing shortages of personnel trained in working with young children with handicaps and their families have impacted the implementation efforts of mandates in early childhood special education (Bruder & McLean, 1988; Hanson, 1990). Although training programs for professionals in early childhood special education existed prior to passage of P.L. 99-457, they had been relatively small in number and scope and have not provided the field with the number of trained professionals required for an expanding field. Under these circumstances, states and licensing boards may be less stringent when qualifying professionals for early intervention practice (McLaughlin, Valdivieso, Spence & Fuller, Burke, 1986). Examination of the events in teacher licensing following the passage of P.L. 94-142 reveals that great number of emergency licenses were issued to professionals who had only minimal qualifications or training in special education. This situation appears to be repeating itself in the present with teacher shortages occurring in general special education as well as on early childhood special education (Hanson, 1990; McLaughlin et al., 1986). The result of this pressure is that early interventionists currently in the field are quite likely to have had training that is not specific to early intervention. These licensing procedures have the potential to substantially define the effects of mandates for service delivery. While the field is critically in need of personnel, establishing standards is also needed in order to preserve the integrity of programs and carry out the intent of the law. A clear description of the roles required for effective practice in the field is necessary to establish these standards. By defining role requirements, prospective practitioners as well as training institutions and licensing boards can understand what knowledge, competencies, and skills are required to perform the required roles.

Expert opinion has been used to describe the role requirements in early childhood special education (Bailey, Palsha & Huntington, 1990; McCollum, 1982). These roles required for practice have also been described by competency lists (Hutinger, 1984; McColum & McCartan, 1988; Zeitlin, Verglas, & Winhover, 1982). Although competency-driven personnel preparation may contribute considerably to the initial definition of professional role, the validity of conceptualizing teacher training around the notion of competency lists is problematic for several reasons. In general, competency lists reflect more closely the particular philosophy of the program that generated the list than competencies established by observing competencies used in practice. Commonly accepted practice in the field may be included in such lists, but listed competencies are seldom validated by ascertaining what competencies effective practitioners actually display. Further, the connection between knowing or even demonstrating the competencies listed and effective teaching after completion of a teacher training program is not well-established. Competency lists frequently focus on observable skill-based facets of the teaching role (Bruder & McLean, 1988). Such lists fail to address goals of teacher preparation that are less observable but equally important (McCollum & McCartan, 1988).

Initial efforts to train personnel in early intervention have been examined to establish role requirements. Bruder and McLean (1988) reviewed 40 federally funded personnel preparation projects for infant specialists across several dimensions and noted that, although over 1,000 infant specialists have been trained through the efforts of these federally funded training programs, most programs lacked coursework and field experience in team process. Similarly, Bailey, Simeonsson, Yoder & Huntington (1990c) conducted an integrated analysis across 8 disciplines that train professionals to work in early intervention. Major gaps in curriculum were evident in the area of family assessment and intervention skills. Additionally, although many programs reported opportunities for students to have clinical experience with families, very few programs required such practicum experiences.

Although these efforts at role definition and examination of initial efforts at personnel preparation may assist the framing of professional preparation activities, the perspective of professionals in the field is critical to validate both the definition of roles and suggest personnel preparation activities. Gathering practitioner perspective may serve to help personnel preparation programs avoid common pitfalls in both preservice and inservice teacher preparation in which "top-down" methods of providing training activities not only fails to address the actual training needs perceived by practitioners but, in failing to acknowledge the unique perspective of practitioners, undermines a professional sense of autonomy and competence about their roles (Guskey, 1986).

Professionals who work in the field of early childhood special education have a unique vantage point from which to describe the roles, competencies, and requirements for effective practice in early childhood special education in rural settings. These perspectives of early childhood special educators in service in the field are crucial for guiding personnel preparation efforts. Descriptions of the types of daily problems they face as well as their attempts to problem solve in their roles implies the kinds of skills required for practice. This paper reports a research effort to ascertain the perspective of early childhood special educators in practice. Specifically, practitioner perspective regarding early childhood special educator roles and training activities seen as helpful in solving the daily problems of practice was sought.

Method

Subjects

In the initial phase of this study, 11 practitioners in early childhood special education from a three county area in Southern California participated in individual interviews. This three county area includes suburban and rural school districts and has a substantial ethnolinguistic minority population receiving early childhood special education service. As shown in Table 1, practitioners were selected for interview randomly except that an effort was made to assure that the interviewed group was representative of the specific role description (i.e., infant specialist, preschool specialist) in the area.

Insert Table 1 About Here

In the second phase of this study, subjects were participants in discussion groups at a "best practices" workshop sponsored by a local university, the special education local planning agency and the state department of education. 2 participants including two of the original 11 practitioners participated in group discussions. As shown in Table 2, the majority of group discussants were employed in preschool positions; infants specialists were somewhat underrepresentated as compared to the population of early childhood special educators. Preschool specialists are special educators who serve in consultant type roles and may provide direct service in either home-based or general early childhood settings. Program coordinators serve administrative roles in this case, but they also provide direct service to families especially in regard to assessment. Therefore, it was deemed important to include their perspective in our sample.

Insert Table 2 About Here

Data Sources and Procedures

The nature of the data to be collected suggested that qualitative research design by employed. Data were gathered initially not to support or refute a specific hypothesis but rather as a means of developing concepts surrounding the perspective of practitioners in the field in terms of their own professional roles descriptions and the specific problems they encountered in practice (Karnes & Johnson, 1988).

The initial part of the study consisted of individual interviews ranging from 30-90 minutes in length. Interviewees were told that the researcher was interested in their opinions regarding necessary skills and competencies required to be effective in their roles as early childhood special educators in order to help direct training efforts. Interviewees were asked to describe their roles as early childhood special educators and to reflect on e problems they encountered on a daily basis. Each interviewee was asked to think of at least three problems and discuss them in terms of how training might help professional better address these problems.

For the second phase of the study, data was collected during group discussions of issues and problems in the field at a local conference of early childhood special educators. The purpose of these discussion groups was to identify training needs. Topics for discussion were selected by a planning committee consisting of special education local planning area directors, program specialists, practitioners and university faculty. Discussion topics included: 1) program evaluation; 2) service delivery; 3) least restrictive environments; 4) transition; 5) family involvement; and 6) curriculum. Participants self-selected group membership. Each discussion group addressed one of the topics. Groups ranged in size from 6-10.

All group discussions lasted about 2 hours. They were lead by a facilitator from the planning committee who assisted the group in defining issues and who kept public notes from the group discussions. Facilitators also asked participants to verify the accuracy of their notes.

Data Analysis

Interviews were transcribed in their entirety. Three researchers independently read the transcripts in order to identify emerging themes. Topics common across several interviews were identified and discussed by the research team. All comments were categorized, sorted, and placed in envelopes according to topic labels tentatively given by the research team. A small number of comments (less than 5%) were deleted as irrelevant to the process. Envelope contents were reread to check if each comment was appropriately assigned to the topic. Disagreements among the research team regarding assignment to topics were discussed to achieve consensus. These procedures were followed in order to establish internal validity as well as reliability (Guba &Lincoln, 1981; Summers, Dell'Oliver, Turnbull, Benson, Santelli, Campbell & Siegel-Causey, 1989; Stainback & Stainback, 1984).

In phase two of the study, the research team examined the notes taken during group discussion with the specific goal of checking whether themes identified during interviews would also emerge during group discussions. It was reasoned that if issues raised in interviews were valid, then these issues would also emerge during group discussions of problems in the field. The presence of the themes identifed during interview transcript examination was established by the research team who read the group discussion notes both independently and jointly. Procedures similar to those employed in the first phase of the study were employed to resolve disagreements about the presence of themes.

Results

Emerging themes from the interview and group discussion data were characterized by the research team as those related to child, teacher, and system aspects of early childhood special education efforts (See Table 3).

Insert Table 3 About Here

Child Aspects

Heterogeneity of Population

Interview - Interviewed practitioners discussed the difficulties of responding to the diverse needs of young children and their families. In this regard, 6 of those interviewed stated that their teacher training was specific to certain kinds of handicapping conditions and that, as a consequence, they felt unprepared to deal with children who were experiencing the impact of handicapping conditions not specific to their training.

Group Discussion - The inherent difficulties of attempting to provide activities for students who were experiencing the impact of many different kinds of handicapping conditions were discussed in regard to curriculum issues and evaluation. Professionals expressed concern that the severity and diversity of handicap in the young children they served had not been expressly addressed by their training.

Teacher Aspects

Lack of Knowledge about families

Interview - Interviewees expressed concern about how to participate in the IFSP process in rural settings where resources for meeting family and child needs were often unavailable.

Group Discussions - Participants in group discussion about transition issues agreed that while important benefits were derived from family involvement in assessment procedures as well as intervention efforts, they felt uncertain how to facilitate this involvement. The extent of family involvement was felt to be determined by cultural values that were different from those of the early interventionist and, thus, at times not easily understood.

Additional Training

Interview - 9 of 11 interviewees expressed that the new roles and responsibilities of early intervention have led them to feel that they lack adequate background and training to meet the child and family needs that they see. A major professional dilemma is that Early Interventionists are so immersed in the demands of their jobs that it is difficult to find the time and training resources necessary to acquire new skills and knowledge.

Group Discussion - Discussions regarding curriculum revealed tensions between beliefs that effective curriculum includes prescriptive direct teaching methods and the belief that effective curriculum in early childhood favors more child-initiated instructional techniques. Professionals felt they needed training in methods of adapting regular early childhood methodology to the needs of children with disabilities who may require more direct teaching methods.

Service Coordination

Interview - Both interviewees who work with infants and those who work with preschool children reported that great deal of their energies were spent on coordinating efforts of several different agencies involved in intervention efforts. Interviewees stated that the effective management of the many support personnel who may have substantial interaction with children and families but may lack specific training in working with young children was a major responsibility for which they felt poorly trained.

Group Discussion - Early childhood special educators in discussion groups revealed that they are often required to act as service coordinators for a multitude of individuals who have regular contact and substantial responsibilities to the young children they serve. Managing the interactions between these individuals and the children and families they serve in rural settings is a major stress for professionals working with young children with handicaps.

Time

Interview - Every conducted interview included expressions that the time and resources available for the multidimensional tasks involved in their roles were almost always inadequate. Responsibilities that go beyond direct contact with children were seen as leaving professionals with personal and professional choices regarding which needs to meet and how to set boundaries between their personal and professional lives.

Group Discussions - Discussants in evaluation agreed that, although networking and peer evaluation might be most help in solving problems, the lack of time for such peer support was problematic. Similarly, in discussions about service delivery, practitioners felt that their inability to search out most effective service delivery options was limited because of the time required for so doing.

Systems Aspects

Support and Understanding in K-12 Settings

Interview - Five interviewees described difficulty in acquiring resources or support from K-12 administrators who, they felt, did not understand the specific program needs of early childhood special education such as placement close to bathrooms or mainstreaming activities. Concern about the IEP/IFSP process as typically conducted in K-12 settings was an expressed issue for 7 interviewees.

Group Discussion - Difficulty in acquiring adequate program evaluation was discussed by group participants. Typically, programs are evaluated by K-12 administrators who lack expertise in early childhood programs. The importance of system-wide mechanisms for effective transitions was seen as crucial for early childhood special education programs but not well understood in K-12 systems. In general, group discussants in the topics of service delivery, least restrictive environments, curriculum and transition, described difficulties in obtaining adequate placement options in systems that were not especially aware of the needs of young children with handicaps.

Interagency Relations

Interview - All interviewed practitioners described attempts to mediate the differences between the needs of children and families on the one hand, and the differing priorities, procedures and regulations of multiple agencies on the other. Recurring and inevitable conflict was described.

Group Discussion - Participants in group discussions regarding service delivery remarked that both overlap or gaps in services occurred because of the lack of interagency cooperation and collaboration. The lack of training in group process skills in all professional fields related to early intervention was discussed by these professionals.

Mainstreaming

Interview - Three preschool specialists in itinerant placements expressed concern over the lack of available preschool placements available to preschoolers with disabilities. Private preschools or Head Start agencies willing to accommodate preschoolers with disabilities were described as needing training in order to effectively integrate young children with disabilities.

Group Discussions - Service delivery and least restrictive environment discussions expressed concern regarding the availability of appropriate preschool placements for mainstreaming. The lack of available funding to provide support for mainstreaming was problematic as described by group participants.

Early interventionists in rural settings have difficulty accessing general early education settings because of both logistical (e.g., location) and administrative barriers. Teachers attempting to mainstream young children with disabilities are confronted with dilemmas in attempting to create normalized educational experiences for children, on the one hand, and in attempting to maintain intensive and individually-focused instruction on the other.

Discussion

The data from this study begin to describe the perceived roles and responsibilities of early childhood special educators as they implement the mandates of the law. The initial phase of the study served to highlight professional beliefs and concerns about their professional roles that were reflected in group discussion. These findings extend earlier research (Vailey et al., 1990a; Bricker & Slentz, 1988; Bruder & McLean, 1988) in that the data describe important aspects of the roles and responsibilities of early childhood special educators that are not yet adequately addressed in personnel preparation programs.

In regard to specific training needs, practitioners in this study expressed the need for further training in service coordination and family involvement. Personnel preparation programs need to expand coursework and more importantly, fieldwork in team process and consultation skills. Perhaps even more critical is collaborative effort in training programs themselves. University programs must solicit and form partnerships between and among both professional training programs and community agencies involved in early intervention services. In this way, professionals from different occupations may develop common understanding and vision about the possibilities of collaboration in practice.

Professionals in both phases of the study who worked with infants and preschoolers expressed the need for training in working within the context of the family, especially when the young children they served were from diverse cultural backgrounds. The importance of the family in the life of all young children is clearly acknowledged by these practitioners who see that the way to improve thier services to young children with disabilities is to strengthen the linkages between intervention efforts and families. Bailey (1989) and others have pointed out the barriers in early childhood special education training programs to increasing the family service aspect of both coursework and practicum experiences. Given the importance of this domain in early intervention efforts as revealed by practicing professionals in the fields as well as by experts in training professionals, these barriers must necessarily be removed.

Interviewees and participants in group discussion frequently reported serving a heterogeneous group of children. While the practice of placing children in non-categorical service delivery options in early childhood special education may be appropriate practice, practitioners expressed anxiety over their inability to understand the implications of different kinds of handicaps for growth and development and often felt uncertain as to what types of instructional activities might be appropriately designed. The implicit assumption of non-categorical placement of young children is that age is a more important factor than the type of disability. Clearly, however, non-categorical placement of young children must necessarily be reflected in personnel preparation efforts for young children that are similarly non-categorical for optimal benefits for professionals and the young children they serve.

Bailey et al. (1990a) noted that while professionals in early intervention report substantial discrepancies between typical and desired practices in family involvement, the greatest proportion of these discrepancies are not seen by practitioners as their own skill limitations, but as limitations of the systems in which they practice. Similarly, our data suggest that, while practitioners acknowledge their own skill limitations, system level factors have a major impact on the practice of early childhood special educators. Both groups of practitioners in is study who were employed in K-12 school systems reported difficulties in acquiring the resources and support necessary to effectively conduct virtually every aspect of their roles as early childhood special educators. These practitioners described the larger system in which they were employed as failing to understand and support their efforts.

The lessons learned from the implementation of P.L. 94-142 have clear implications for the effective implementation of practice in early childhood special education. As Weatherley and Lipsky (1977) point out in their classic review of implementation of the P.L. 94-142 in the state of Massachusetts, practitioners ultimately determine the extent and nature of implementation of mandates. The considerable local variation in the degree of successful implementation of the provisions of P.L. 94-142 in the state of Massachusetts depended to a large extent on the personal and organizational resources available to the practitioners whose job it was to implement these provisions. Similarly, the personal and professional resources available to practitioners assigned to carry out the provisions of mandates in early childhood special education will considerably impact the implementation of the law.

The need for innovative programs of preservice and inservice teacher training is suggested by our practitioner perspective data as well as other work in the field. Our data support recommendations for focusing training in early childhood special education on e role requirements of working in the context of families and team effort as well as in direct service to young children. Providing specific training in early child development as opposed to disability specific training appears warranted and necessary.

Finally, the extent to which the larger systems are supportive of the efforts of early childhood special education will to a large degree help decide the success of early childhood special education efforts. Less than adequate resource allocation in terms of time and support for the effort change entails will doom implementation efforts to failure even if professionals are very well-trained. As Bailey (1989) states, it is clear that efforts to improve the training of practitioners will create only limited change in practice, if improvements sin training efforts are not accompanied by parallel change in the systems that support early intervention efforts in rural settings.

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Table 1

Early Childhood Special Education Interviewees N=1

Position	*Years*	*Core Disciplinary Teaching*
Special Day Class preschool	3	B.A. in special Education
Special Day Class preschool	5	M.A. in speech and language
Special Day Class preschool	7	M.A. in speech and language
General preschool	4	M.A. in early childhood education
Preschool Specialist (itinerant)	3	B.A. in special education
Preschool Specialist (itinerant)	2	M.A. in special education
Preschool Specialist (itinerant)	1	M.A. in speech and language
Infant Specialist	2	B.A. in special education
Infant Specialist	3	M.A. in speech and language
Program Coordinator	4	M.A. in special education
Program Coordinator	3	Ph.D. in Ed. Admin.

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Table 2

Early Childhood Special Education Group Discussants N = 52

Years of Teaching Experience	*n*
1 - 3	6
4 - 6	7
7 or more	39

Current Professional Position	*n*
Special Day Classes	17
Infant Specialist	8
Preschool Specialist (itinerant)	19
Coordinator	5
Private Agency	3

Core area of disciplinary training	*n*
Special Education	23
Early Childhood	5
Speech and Language	16
O.T/P.T	3
Other	5

Table 3

Themes from Interviews and Group Discussions

Child Aspects
Heterogeneity of population
Teacher Aspects
Lack of knowledge and technology about families
Additional Training
Service Coordination
Time
System Aspects
Support and understanding in K-12 settings
Interagency relations
Mainstreaming

Eileen R. Corbitt
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Teacher Education Department
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Donna Barrett
Resource Teacher
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Hartsville SC 29550

Hand in Hand:
Supporting Change through Practitioner-College Partnerships

Introduction

Change is in the air! Educational programs in the United States have been under intense scrutiny since the early 1980's. Many of the reports have concluded that our system of educating children is not working, that our students are leaving their school experience unprepared to deal with the challenges of an increasingly technological and multicultural world. The criticism and debate has been even more intense in the sub-system of special education, that component of our schools charged with meeting the needs of those students who are least able to "keep up" and "measure up", The job demands of special educators have increased exponentially. Volumes of paperwork are required to document that they have indeed done what they are required to do. Requirements proliferate, and rarely are the teachers themselves provided an opportunity to contribute to finding better ways to do things, nor even asked to comment on the appropriateness of solutions invented by others. Doing more, with more students, with fewer resources, and often without adequate space and time is the order of the day. Since special educators in rural areas are often the only ones in their buildings or districts who serve students with disabilities, they often experience a degree of isolation in their jobs that all but guarantees a short professional career. In a survey of persons who have left special education or teaching entirely, Platt and Johnson (1990) identified the following as reasons teachers leave the special education classroom: too much paperwork, too many students, lack of administrative recognition and support, lack of participation in decision making, and too much responsibility with too few resources. Just when we need to retain teachers with enough experience to be effective reflective thinkers and problem-solvers, we create more barriers to their efforts. Not surprising, they leave, convinced that it is "their fault", that they are not able to handle the job. The literature on stress and burnout (e.g., Platt & Johnson, 1990) often concludes that the solution to these retention problems lies in training teachers to use better organizational skills and other stress-control methods, thus implicitly "blaming the victim" for the burnout phenomenon rather than looking for ways to alleviate the sources of the stress itself.

The situation in teacher preparation programs is equally difficult. The state of the art in special education is rapidly evolving. Methods that showed promise just a few years ago are quickly replaced by newer ones with greater promise of effectiveness. College professors face the task of keeping up with a rapidly expanding and changing knowledge base, with validating that knowledge base, and with preparing their students to be effective in the "real" world of the special educator. They know that teaching pre-service students methods or approaches that are not feasible or which prove to be ineffective to implement in actual settings is a futile effort. Teacher educators need a way to validate their knowledge base on a continuing basis.

One solution to both these problems is the school/college partnership. Partnerships between schools and universities are rather commonplace. Historically these partnerships have been institutionally bureaucratic in nature and have been dominated by the university partner, focusing on a single issue or project of limited duration (Wangemann, Ingram & Muse, 1989), often fueled by grants with all their accompanying constraints. Reports in the literature typically report only successful efforts, thus making it difficult to determine what the essential characteristics of good partnerships are. In a review of existing reports, Wangemann et al. (1989, p. 62) identified the following elements that seem to be related to successful collaboration:

"(1) clarity of purpose
(2) complementary dissimilarity between the partners
(3) overlapping self-interests
(4) sufficient time to build bridges of communication and trust
(5) clarification and coordination of roles within the partnership
(6) shared ownership
(7) emphasis on action rather than on structure building
(8) adequate resources
(9) leadership from key administrators
(10) institutional commitment to the satisfying of mutual self-interests
(11) on ongoing system of research and evaluation
(12) an understanding of each institution's culture."

The purpose of this paper is to present a model by which teachers in rural schools and faculty members in teacher preparation programs can support each other in the change process facing our schools and teacher education, and to examine the components of that model which contributed to its success. The "hand-in hand" partnership is a voluntary association of a single college faculty member and a single classroom teacher, and is characterized by a friendship base, an open-ended "agenda", a true sense of parity in the relationship, and a mutual search for information or solutions to problems (Friend & Cook, 1992). Such partnerships have the potential to provide ongoing professional development and support to the special educator, as well as to provide a way for the college professor to conduct "reality checks" of the preservice curriculum. Capitalizing on what rural areas do best, the "hand-in-hand" model focuses on the efficacy of "people" resources as opposed to material or financial resources. It supports and facilitates change in our schools and communities by addressing the needs of and providing support to rural special educators and faculty involved in teacher preparation programs which supply teachers for rural schools.

A Story of Change

Our story begins in the summer of 1989 in Hartsville, a rural community located in Darlington County in northeastern South Carolina. West Hartsville Elementary School serves students from K-6, drawing from the west end of the small town of Hartsville and the surrounding farming areas. The special education teacher was serving her students using a typical pull-out resource model. She had been serving these students for a year, although her professional preparation was in regular early childhood education. She was in the process of taking the special education courses required for certification when the collaboration began.

Coker College, also located in Hartsville, is a small liberal arts college with a strong commitment to service to the public schools in the northeastern region of rural South Carolina. As the story unfolded, Coker College was in the process of establishing a preparation program for special educators. The faculty wanted this new program to reflect the current "best practices" in special education as well as to prepare special educators who would continue to grow and serve students in this region over a period of years. The decision was made to establish a generic special education major, with emphasis on services to students with mild disabilities in non-categorical service models. Additionally, it was felt that new teachers needed a good grounding in skills of collaboration and consultation needed for evolving service models (West, Idol & Cannon , 1989). The challenge was that the implementation of this preparation program was occurring in advance of the establishment of such programs in local schools. College faculty were faced with the lack of appropriate practicum sites for the new model, as well as with few opportunities to validate the content of the new program.

The initial contact was made by the resource teacher. She called the college faculty member to secure some help with resources for a college course she was taking. An extended conversation ensued during which a number of issues of concern to the teacher were raised. It developed that she was in the process of designing an alternative way to serve her fifth and sixth grade resource students during the 1989-90 year since her room was not big enough to seat her large enrollment. As the conversation proceeded, information was shared, resources identified, and new ideas explored. The college partner was excited by the possibility of a demonstration site for collaborative models of service, and the school partner expressed interest in learning more about new strategies and models of service. The two educators had begun a partnership. Echoing the experiences reported by Miller (1990),

> "we were drawn together by our questions. We knew that the questions differed, depending on our particular situations, but we also felt that our questions intersected enough to warrant a collaborative approach to our investigations. ... we had begun a collaboration that has expanded into spaces that none of us could have imagined on that hot summer day." (Miller, p. 19-21)

Several similar phone contacts occurred that summer, always extending far beyond the original need or topic. Informal brainstorming allowed mutual exploration of solutions to problems that were confronting both partners. The college partner provided the school partner with books and periodicals which described collaborative models, and she indicated a willingness to continue these contacts into the school year. The school partner agreed to document and share the outcomes of her implementation experience. Plans were made to meet informally and to review the progress of the experiment in cooperative, collaborative service. The resource teacher later observed:

> From that point on I found someone that could guide and help me. Until that point, there was no one. [She] introduced new methods, suggested resources, new models of Resource [Room teaching]. We collaborated, talked, and shared...Because of our friendship and willingness to share, I believe it made for an excellent environment for the student teacher I had last spring... As a classroom teacher, it is easy to live in those four walls, to limit ourselves and not look beyond the door. I know that I am a better teacher because of the

> collaboration between the [college partner] and myself, between the college students and myself, and between the classroom teachers and myself. Having a college professor as a mentor, as a friend, as an encourager has enabled me to help others. It is a vital link for schools and colleges and especially for teacher preparation.

From the college partner's perspective, the benefits were also great. As the friendship developed, validation for components of the college preparation program was obtained. For example, initially it appeared from the literature on inclusion models of programming that it was conceivable that one day resource rooms might be completely replaced by collaborative, consultative models including cooperative teaching in mainstream classrooms. The experience at West Hartsville indicated that, even though the academic needs of the fifth and sixth graders were being well met by programming delivered cooperatively in the regular classroom, these students still appeared to need a "safe haven", to know that there was a place or a time in the school day when they could relax, to receive the emotional support for the great academic efforts they were making. The regular classroom could not provide this, and so a short "decompression" period was added at the close of the day when these students could elect to come to the resource room for "check-in". This example illustrates how valuable partnerships can be. When the resource teacher reported this development to the college partner in a lunch visit, the reaction of the college partner was affirming, particularly since the observation, although unexpected, was completely justifiable, indicated excellent reflective thinking on the part of the school staff, and added to the knowledge base on the feasibility of inclusion programming. A second learning was the development of an efficient record-keeping system by the school partner that allowed her to document activities in the co-teaching portion of her day which addressed objectives on specific students' IEP's. The information gained from the partnership provided "face validity" for the program in the college students' eyes. As the professor incorporated specific stories from the partnership, students developed the confidence that what they were learning was valid and relevant and not just "ivory tower" thinking. The college partner acquired important data that helped further develop the conceptual basis for the college program. From both the school and the college perspective, the partnership activities provided the kind of validation and accommodation that must occur if theory is to translate into practice.

The informal "give-and-take" conversations continued over a three year period (1989-1992). As the resource teacher's case load changed, additional opportunities for joint problem solving arose. The conversations helped the teacher identify new approaches and to modify them to fit the specific demands of that setting. The school partner audited the first offering of the college course on collaborative consultation and provided helpful feedback on the content of that course, feedback which made a subsequent offering of the course more effective. In the spring of 1992, the college and school partners team-taught a six-semester hour course in the characteristics of learners with mild disabilities which the school partner characterized as "the high point of our collaboration... It brought the [theoretical] and the practical together for the preparation of the college students." It also validated the equality in the relationship. in the eyes of the partners as well as the students. All of these experiences helped the college partner refine the content in the new special education major, affirming the applicability of much that was envisioned, but adding a reality base that acknowledged that no one model works everywhere for every student. This awareness reinforced the need to structure a college program that developed the preservice students' reflective problem-solving abilities, and which provided a rich background in methods and approaches, coupled with an intense exposure to the depth of professional literature and extensive in-classroom practica.

And so, a story of change is told. A resource room teacher in a small town in South Carolina implements a new model of service and acquires new methods of serving her students, using her college partner as a sounding board and resource. A college professor in a small teacher education program refines the pre-service experiences of her students based on the collaborative contacts with the school partner. Change? Yes. Small change? Maybe not. The strength the partners gained from each other has enabled both of them to reach out with confidence to others who are asking the same questions. The college students also were the beneficiaries of this partnership. As they move out into their careers, they take with them ideas and philosophies that have been refined through the partnership's collaborations. They also take with them a positive model of a professional teacher. Instead of seeing classroom teachers denigrated by their college teachers, they saw a classroom teacher who was growing professionally and held in respect by college faculty. Hopefully this awareness will encourage them to be active in the change process and to have confidence in their abilities.

Further evidence of the force for change fostered by the partnership is the following: with the encouragement of the college partner, the school partner has presented workshops and seminars on her experiences, beginning with a poster session at S.C. Council for Exceptional Children State Convention in 1990 and including three full-session presentations at subsequent conferences and conventions; she also conducted several inservice sessions for the Darlington County School District, and an inservice program for regular and special education teachers in neighboring Lee County this past summer as they approached the implementation of a consultative model in their district. The confidence the partnership engendered in the school partner has enabled her to be supportive of others involved in change efforts. In particular, the school partner reports on her first visit with the special educator from Lee County:

> I met with Mrs. Ferguson two days before the presentation. She had many concerns. The main concern: Will the resource model meet these students' needs? Lee County also wanted to implement co-teaching with regular educators two or three periods a day. We discussed her needs and talked about the flexibility of the different models. This would be an experimental year to try things and see if they worked. She had a wonderful attitude with a willingness to try but she still had some reservations about the change. It was at this point I realized that she had not one model but two models to adjust to. She had never used the resource model, much less co-teaching. She taught a self-contained class with all handicapping conditions. This would be a major adjustment for her as well as the entire faculty.

Subsequently, the school partner met with the entire faculty of Bishopville Primary School, and then with teaching teams who would be directly affected. Schedules were discussed and plans made; she later observed:

> It was a morning of awareness and collaboration with a desire to work together to meet the special needs of students in the least restrictive environment. We hope to keep sharing ideas between Bishopville Primary and West Hartsville Elementary throughout the year.

Analysis of the Experience

And so the network grew. Change efforts were supported through the informal mutual exchange of problems, information, ideas and results, over the phone, over coffee and over common meals. These exchanges led to a genuine appreciation for the expertise of both partners as well as a sense of greatly enhanced problem solving from having two heads working on each problem. Beyond that, a close personal friendship developed, born of mutual support and respect. The exchange of thinking led specifically to the development of a collaborative consultation model of service in that elementary school, and to a new college major to prepare teachers to work in such a model. Both partners contributed, both benefited. It was realized how powerful a force for change this partnership idea had become. Both partners were empowered to support change beyond their particular institutions. "Hand in hand", change occurred.

One way of analyzing this effort is to compare the characteristics of this relationship with the criteria Wangemann et al. (1989) identified for effective partnerships to determine which of them is represented and helpful in this type of partnership. The following characteristics were present or emerged during the experience:

Complementary dissimilarity between the partners. Both partners brought unique and complementary resources to the collaboration, but it was the basic sense of respect for the other that allowed each partner to share questions, doubts, and problems without risk to self-esteem, without "losing face." The "complementary dissimilarity" must be supported by mutual respect, as well as an abiding belief in the parity of those resources, for collaboration to work.

Overlapping self-interests. It was clear from the beginning that both partners had something to gain from this endeavor. Equally important was that these self-interests were related to the larger goal of serving students with disabilities in the public school. It was this common concern, and not just personal self-interest, that fueled the partnership.

Sufficient time to build bridges of communication and trust. Throughout the three year period, there was never a sense of time pressure; the relationship was allowed to evolve in its own time. This relaxed time frame assured that the collaboration did not increase stress on either partner. This natural development prevented a sense that either partner was being exploited by the other and led to a basic sense of trust and effective communication. Both trust and accurate communication are essential for any collaboration.

Shared ownership. There was definitely a sense of shared ownership. Both partners raised issues to be solved, and both sought the advice of the other. It would appear critical that any partnership have a sense of shared ownership to function. Even more importantly, the shared ownership must exist in practice and not just in words.

Emphasis on action rather than on structure building. The partnership was born of a need, and it was characterized throughout by its orientation toward "doing"; no time was diverted to institutional maintenance. It is likely that it was the sense of immediacy of effect that sustained it over the three years. So often teachers have to endure hours of meaningless meetings and "inservices", counting themselves lucky to emerge with a single new idea to use in their programs. This was avoided because both partners were concerned with "getting the job done."

Adequate resources. One of the real advantages of the "hand-in hand" model is that it uses "people power" rather than scarce material resources and funds. As a problem-solving model, it uses human inventiveness and mutual support to maximize the efforts of the partners. In the face of scarce resources, people power may be our only reliable resource. The one resource that was needed was time, and admittedly, there rarely was enough of that. However, the friendship nature of the partnership made it seem less onerous to use personal time for the collaborations.

An understanding of each institution's culture. While it did not begin as a goal of the partnership, one of the outcomes was an enhanced appreciation of the culture in which the other operated. This was beneficial to the communication process and led to better problem-solving as the partnership evolved.

On the other hand, some of the criteria cited by Wangemann et al. (1989) were not found to be present, and in fact might have impeded or destroyed the partnership had they been cultivated:

Clarity of purpose. When the partnership began, there was no sense of a "project" being launched, no formal goals and objectives. In fact, it is likely that a formalization of goals and objectives would have created a barrier to further development. It grew as a friendship grows; as personal benefit was perceived, effort was expended. In this case, it was the natural evolution of the relationship rather than clearly defined purposes that proved to be the strength of the partnership.

Clarification and coordination of roles within the partnership. The structure of the partnership was informal and the number of participants small, so it was never necessary to move past the organizational structure of equal partners. This contributed greatly to trust and effectiveness. Neither party was designated nor perceived as having more responsibility, power, or expertise. As noted by Pugach and Johnson (1990), it is the hierarchical nature of most consultation models that contributes to teacher resistance to participation and change. It is essential that the partners be perceived as equals and that the questioning and reflection required for change occur in a safe, sheltered environment. Differences in power, real or perceived, would prohibit the creation of such an environment.

Leadership from key administrators. In this model, administrators are largely irrelevant. The model works at the "street bureaucrat" level (Weatherly & Lipsky, 1977) where real people are. It provides support to the partners (or "street level bureaucrats") as they seek ways to accommodate the demands placed on them and to confront the realities of limited resources. The "hand-in-hand" model allows peers to support one another's growth and change, even in the absence of administrative support.

Institutional commitment to the satisfying of mutual self-interests. No institutional commitment is required for "hand-in-hand" partnerships to operate. Certainly, the schools and colleges can be supportive of these connections, but a mutually satisfying partnership can be created without any official sanction. In some situations, the absence of administrative mandate might be a requirement for the partnership to function effectively, particularly if the administrative relationship has been autocratic in nature in the past.

An ongoing system of research and evaluation. The best indication that a partnership is effective is the desire of the partners to continue in it. This was the case in this relationship. The partners continued to collaborate because at some level each perceived the partnership to be of value and worth the effort expended.

This validation, while it lacks statistical power, is in the final analysis the only one that matters. Formal evaluation would have used valuable time and resources, and would likely have solidified the model into "rigor-mortis".

The conclusion?? As indicated above, some of the criteria that the institutional mindset dictates as important to the success of a cooperative endeavor appear to be irrelevant at the level at which most educators operate. When we try to utilize the institutional structures to accomplish change, we usually fail because of the difficulty in navigating and harnessing the institutional giant (Weatherley & Lipsky, 1977). In the long run, change happens because individual people find a better way to do something and then share that idea with a friend (Smylie, 1988). If it works, that person passes it on. The "hand-in-hand" model is a vehicle for doing that. No grants or bylaws or contracts are required; no hierarchical relationships nor accountability requirements intrude. All that is needed is the willingness to share ourselves. How can this be promoted?? If each of us could become more open to opportunities to share as equals with others, if we can set aside the need for public acclaim, if we can allow time for relationships to develop, to get to know and trust each other, and if we can find ways for college faculty and school teachers to meet one another as equals and friends, change can occur.

The Future

West Hartsville Elementary School has now added consultation as a viable level on the continuum of services. The school partner continues to make adaptations in the model to meet changing needs. She has developed a "hand-in-hand" partnership with regular educators in her building as well as with a special educator from a neighboring county. The school partner and her regular education partners continue to collaborate and have given several joint presentations about their work together in their district and across the state. The school partner has also developed a "hand-in-hand" partnership with the speech therapist in her building. All these partnerships are characterized by the same sense of parity and reciprocity that exists in the original partnership. All are leading these professionals into new and exciting areas of investigation and service. With the experience gained in the partnership, the college partner was instrumental in developing and implementing an innovative major in special education based on the principle of collaboration. The partners collaborated on developing and teaching a course on the characteristics of learners with mild disabilities from a cross-categorical perspective, and continue to work together on the development of collaborative models.

In the fall of 1992, another such a partnership was begun with a teacher at the Colton-Pierrepont Central School in northern New York. The special educator in this small rural school was already implementing collaborative services on a part-time basis and had expanded the program to include two other special educators. The college partner, now in a new position on the faculty of Potsdam College, learned of these efforts, and early discussions resulted in interest in establishing a "hand-in hand" partnership between the Potsdam College faculty member and the Colton-Pierrepont teacher. It is envisioned that this partnership too will: (a) provide needed mutual support to the partners in their work for school change, and (b) provide information needed as the college partner learns about the organizational structure of the public schools in New York state and as Potsdam College initiates its new graduate program in special education. The partners are working together to establish a new local chapter of the Council for Exceptional Children in the North Country region of New York, to provide an environment where college and school personnel can meet and discuss common concerns and hopefully form additional "hand-in-hand" partnerships.

Even more important than these accomplishments are the deep friendships that have evolved from these partnerships. All involved have been empowered by these supportive conversations to be effective advocates for and implementers of change. These partnerships are ongoing and have provided and will continue to provide support for college and school personnel involved in change efforts. Through their conversations, the partners become stronger in their advocate roles, the support they receive proving invaluable in enabling them to persist in articulating needed changes within their individual systems. The partnership becomes supportive, not coercive, because the partners have developed a friendship and trust, a commitment to making the other as good as each can become. It is expected that the benefits described in this paper can be achieved in any situation in which school practitioners and college faculty can arrange to talk on a regular basis, face to face or via electronic technology. "Hand-in-hand" partnerships can also develop between teachers within a school or in different schools. The only essential requirement is the desire of both partners to share with each other what they know and what they learn.

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STRATEGIES FOR SPECIAL EDUCATION INCLUSION IN GENERAL EDUCATION: IMPLICATIONS FOR RURAL SCHOOLS

by
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Introduction

Few issues in special education currently generate more discussion, confusion or apprehension than the topic of "full inclusion." Despite the controversy and debate surrounding this issue, political and other pressures are moving the nation in the direction of serving disabled and other at-risk students in the mainstream ("Disability Groups Send," 1992; National Association of School Boards of Education, 1992).

Although momentum for full inclusion is strengthening, major concerns still remain. The Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975 (PL 94-142) embraces two hallmark components. They are exemplified by the now familiar phrases, "free, appropriate public education" and "least restrictive environment." Full inclusion is clearly a movement that addresses the second component. However, the issue of appropriateness remains a major concern. Research findings on the efficacy of different placement options are varied. However, it is certain that, "unless adaptations occur in regular education, there is little likelihood that students being returned to the mainstream will be any more successful than they were before the advent of special classes" (Stainback & Stainback, 1989, p. 49).

The concern about supplying appropriate services to fully mainstreamed students with disabilities is particularly acute in rural areas where financial, human, and community resources, as well as other support services, are often scarce. This paper will address issues confronting rural schools as they grapple with the complexities of full inclusion. A support for full inclusion will be presented, along with a description of a rural school district that has adopted this philosophy. Finally, a model for planning and implementing a full inclusion approach to special education service delivery of will be outlined.

Rural Schools and Special Education

Two thirds of all school districts and one third of all students in America are rural (Helge, 1990). "Nearly 80 percent of the nation's school districts have fewer than 3,000 pupils" ("Rural districts dominate," 1991). Numerous factors have a negative impact on many rural communities. Howley (1991) suggests that among them are :

- decreased amounts of government funds coming into rural communities as compared to urban areas;
- geographic barriers affecting isolation;
- specialized economies as the primary financial base of rural communities increasing economic instability;
- small scale of businesses and services adversely affecting educational quality.

Additional factors impinging upon special education services in rural schools, include "community attitudes (e.g., limited expectations regarding achievement of those with disabilities . . .); the 'mystification' of special education; . . . inadequate facilities, equipment, and materials . . ." (Helge, 1986). Inadequate services (e.g., medical, social, psychological, etc.) are also more common in rural communities (Helge, 1990). It is often more expensive to serve students with disabilities in rural areas because of additional transportation and professional service costs (Helge, 1984). Further, the perennial problem of recruiting and retaining teachers and other specialists to remote, rural communities is problematic. This is especially true of services for low-incidence disabilities (Berkeley & Ludlow, 1991). As a result of these and other factors, it is apparent that it is often not easy for rural school districts, alone or cooperatively with neighboring districts, to meet the educational demands of students with disabilities.

A Case for Greater Inclusion

Historical support for inclusion: Reynolds (1988) uses the term "progressive inclusion" to describe the evolution of services to those with various disabilities. He and others (e.g., Stainback, Stainback, & Bunch, 1989) point out that as the United States emerged as a country, no educational services were available to the disabled. In the early 1800's, residential institutions, or "asylums," began to emerge to accommodate those with hearing, visual, mental or emotional impairments. Although access to those services was far from universal, such institutions remained the primary educational option for the disabled until day schools and special classes came into fashion in the early 1900's. These allowed greater, more localized access.

During the 1950's - 60's, parents of children with disabilities began to organize and to pressure courts and legislatures for changes in educational services available to their children. They sought access to public schools as an issue of civil rights for the disabled. Among the results of these efforts was PL 94-142, which mandated a free, appropriate public education for all handicapped children to be provided in the least restrictive environment. As a result, resource rooms and self-contained classrooms appeared in public schools everywhere.

In 1986, Madeleine Will, then-Assistant Secretary for the Office of Special Education and Rehabilitative Services, published a report regarding the status of special education programs since the implementation of PL 94-142. Her task force proposed what has been called the Regular Education Initiative. Citing concerns about some unintended negative effects of special education "pull-out" programs, their proposal suggested that greater efforts to educate mildly and moderately disabled students in the mainstream of regular education should be pursued (Will, 1986). Since then, support has grown for all students, even those with severe and profound disabilities, to be educated in the same classrooms as the nondisabled.

Perspectives of inclusion: In the relevant research and professional literature, the proponents and opponents of inclusion have become more apparent. According to Skrtic (1991), both sides agree that the only justifiable, rational reason for special education is to provide instructional benefit to students with disabilities. Yet, "there is now substantial evidence that most, if not all, children with disabilities, including children with very severe disabilities, can be educated appropriately without isolation from peers who do not have disabilities" (Ringer & Kerr, 1988, p. 6).

> Given the weak effects of special education instructional practices and the social and psychological costs of labeling, the current system of special education is, at best, no more justifiable than simply permitting most students to remain unidentified in regular classrooms and, at worst, far less justifiable than regular classroom placement in conjunction with appropriate in-class support services. (Skrtic, 1991)

However, not all proponents of inclusion support "full inclusion." Skrtic (1991) suggests that inclusion proponents fall into four camps. The differences among these groups center upon degree of inclusion. At one end of the spectrum are those who espouse the position of full inclusion for mildly handicapped children, while maintaining separate educational options for those with moderate, severe or profound disabilities. Others support the full inclusion of those with mild and moderate disabilities. Some propose that, for the most part, only the profoundly disabled should educated outside the mainstream. The fourth position supports the full inclusion of all those with disabilities.

A Case Study of Rural Special Education Inclusion (information about the case study comes largely from Jolly, Foster, & Sullivan, 1992; and West Feliciana Parish Schools, 1992)

Background: West Feliciana Parish is a rural Louisiana parish located approximately 35 miles north of Baton Rouge along the Mississippi River. The parish is home for about 12,000 people. The economy revolves around agriculture-related businesses, a prison, a large paper plant, and a nuclear power plant.

The school system serves approximately 2,100 students in four schools (three elementary schools serving 1,200 students, and a consolidated junior high/high school). Ninety-eight percent of the students are bused to and from their schools; for some the ride is as long as an hour and a half each way. About 52 percent are White non-Hispanic and 48 percent are Black.

Of the sixty-four parishes in Louisiana, West Feliciana ranks sixtieth in per capita income. Unemployment is high (10.1 percent). Fifty-five percent of the students participate in a free or reduced lunch program, and approximately 30 percent come from very low-socieconomic level conditions. The administrators of the school system have defined all children in the parish as at risk.

In an attempt to meet the educationally related needs of these at-risk students, an array of services were planned and initiated. The overall impact of these services was to identify vulnerable families and students and provide a "safety net" for them. The philosophy of these Safety Net programs is that, by ensuring all student needs having been addressed, the success of the school will be assured, and the need for corrective or remedial efforts later on will be reduced. Each school in the parish became involved in developing and delivering programs that fit the needs of all students.

Overall program description: Safety Net is different from traditional school philosophies in that it is oriented toward prevention and intervention services through health, self-concept, self-esteem, and self-efficacy programs. In addition, curriculum realignment assures appropriate cognitive (academic) programs at all levels for all students. The focus is on child advocacy and preventive early intervention.

Because of West Feliciana Parish's focus on the total child, other agencies collaborate with the school through interagency agreements, providing services to students and families at the school site. The Office of Public Health, the Offices of Mental Health and Substance Abuse, the Louisiana State University College of Education, the Louisiana State University School of Medicine and the Tulane School of Medicine are involved.

Inclusion description: In West Feliciana Parish, Chapter I and special education students are integrated into regular classrooms. At the secondary level, students are also integrated into vocational and community-based instructional programs, as needed. Special education professionals serve as consultants to aid classroom teachers in meeting the needs of all students so that, whether disabled or not: "each child experiences optimal learning; each child is valued and respected; each child is provided age-appropriate physical, functional, social and societal programming for maximum interaction with peers at school and in our communities" (*Integrated Program*, 1992, p. 2). Time has been built into the weekly schedule for special education staff, Chapter I staff, paraprofessionals and regular education staff to consult/collaborate. Discipline is maintained through schoolwide discipline programs. Counseling and other in-house intervention alternatives are proactive, enabling students to assume greater autonomy and responsibility while phasing out of support.

Effectiveness: Since the Safety Net program, the parish has seen a 23 percent decrease in the number of identified special education students and a 50 percent decrease in the number of discipline referrals to principals in pre-kindergarten through sixth grade. All elementary-level regular-class students passed the LEAP test (state-mandated testing) and 97 percent of the special education students were promoted to the next grade. In 1990, 36.3 percent of the first through ninth grade students scored above the national median in reading. In 1992, 45.9 percent scored above the national median. And in mathematics 43.4 percent of the students in the first through ninth grades scored above the national median in 1990. In 1992 the number who scored above the national median in mathematics jumped to 54 percent. An additional, somewhat parenthetical measure of effectiveness is that there is a significant in-migration into the district. More than 400 new students have enrolled in the parish schools since these efforts began; many have come from private school settings.

Funding: The Safety Net program has been developed and implemented largely through "creative rearranging" of funding already being received by the district. Funding waivers were negotiated to pool special education, compensatory education, Chapter I, and other funds in order to provide integrated services in regular classrooms. Some of the initial finances have come from a sizable school fund surplus arising from the building of a local power plant. From these funds a new school housing, among other things, the new pre-kindergarten program and the Family Service Center. Other expenses are shared through cooperative agreements with various local and state agencies. West Feliciana Parish was also awarded a two-year grant of $165,000 by the BellSouth Foundation (a private foundation) in 1992 to expand and evaluate the program.

Staffing and staff development: As a result of the magnitude and scope of changes being planned for and implemented, a much larger than usual staff turnover rate occurred. Personnel selections for these positions have been based upon expertise and ability rather than seniority. Many leadership positions have been filled by personnel from outside the district rather than the usual tradition of administrative underlings "moving up." Also, because of a cooperative agreement with Louisiana State University College of education, one of the elementary schools is a designated professional development center for pre-service teachers. This enhances opportunities to select new teachers who work well in an inclusive environment.

Staff development needs were also apparent. Many teachers in the parish had previously tended to focus only upon the middle range of their classroom populations. Staff development opportunities were minimal and fragmented. Today, staff development is ongoing, with particular focus upon the development of necessary attitudes, commitment and competencies required to work effectively with diverse student needs. A needs-assessment-driven, teacher-friendly staff development program is in place. More teacher input goes into the selection of in-service topics. In-class demonstrations and coaching are also used to translate research and theory into practice.

Planning and implementation process for inclusion: The Safety Net program fundamentally has been a restructuring effort. It has involved changes in educational philosophy and attitudes; the service delivery structure has been reconfigured from two parallel services (regular and special education) to one integrated system; faculty and staff roles/relationships have also been reshaped. Interagency collaborations and added programs have also been included. Negotiations with the state department of education for various waivers have been pursued. Therefore, it was necessary to plan carefully and to implement programs in stages.

Planning began in the summer of 1989 when the new superintendent, responding to a mandate from his local school board to improve the quality of instruction, convened a committee of forty people, composed of teachers, parents, administrators, community leaders, and school board members, to work through a strategic planning process to develop a 5-year parish plan. Their mission statement declared: "As part of our restructuring and enhancement of service models, all students are valued and respected, and it is expected that all children can and will learn."

By applying and receiving state funding, a new pre-kindergarten program was initiated for all four-year-old children in the parish, including those with disabilities. This began the gradual adoption of full inclusion for all students over the next five years. The second year, after opportunities for observation, discussion, staff development, leadership selection, provision of resources (human, time and financial) and community awareness activities, pull-out and self-contained programs were phased out of the elementary schools, and students with disabilities were integrated into regular classrooms. Full inclusion was incorporated at the junior high school level the following year. By the end of the fifth year, it is anticipated that all students in the parish school system, regardless of their educational needs, will be in regular classrooms.

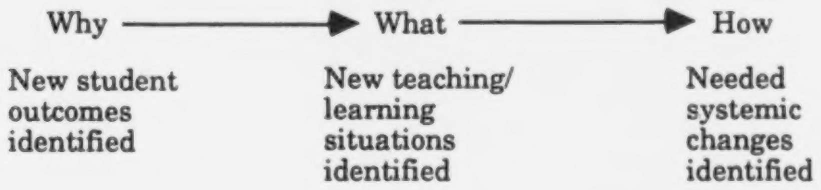
A Model to Consider When Moving Toward Inclusion

The concept of full inclusion is not new. Various special education service delivery configurations and considerations for mainstream classes, even for those with very severe disabilities in rural schools, are available in the literature (Zeph, 1983; Helge, 1986; Ayres & Meyer, 1992). Issues such as team teaching, consultative support, use of paraprofessionals and peers as tutors, cooperative learning approaches and numerous other ideas have been discussed and are available in the professional literature to those seeking them out.

The broader issue is how to conceptualize, plan for and implement systemic change such as the adoption of full inclusion. Hord (1992, p. 59) emphasizes "that the *why* (outcomes) of improving schools precedes the *what* and the *how* and that the *why* should be embedded firmly in student outcomes." Corbett and Blum (1992) suggest community-wide participation in identifying these student outcomes.

Once the outcomes have been identified, "the next step is to consider and design teaching/learning situations that will produce the desired outcomes" (Hord, 1992, p. 60). The third step, then, is a determination of how the current system must change in order to accommodate and facilitate these new teaching/learning situations (Hord, 1992).

Figure 1


Why
What
How
New student outcomes identified
New teaching/ learning situations identified
Needed systemic changes identified

For school improvement to occur, it is important to understand that constructive change takes leadership. Plans do not get implemented because they have been mandated or because teachers are well-intentioned. Change must be facilitated. Rutherford and his collegues (1983) found that school leaders who were successful in realizing school improvement "work[ed] intensely with brute persistence to attain their vision" (p. 113).

The process delineated in Figure 1 is somewhat simplistic. It does not identify how school leaders go about the "business" of restructuring. Hord (1992, p. 31), in her synthesis of research on what leaders do to facilitate school change, suggests a six-component framework that outlines what successful school leaders do to facilitate change. The six components are:

- Developing and communicating the vision
- Planning and providing resources
- Providing training and development
- Monitoring and checking progress

- Continuing to give assistance
- Creating an atmosphere and culture for change

Vision: It is important for school leaders to have a clear picture of what a proposed change "looks like" before they attempt to develop programs. When considering the issue of full inclusion, this involves more than simply envisioning students with disabilities in regular classrooms. Indeed, these images frequently elicit feelings of dismay, bewilderment, concern and fear in parents, teachers, special educators and others. A vision of full inclusion must include the educational success of all students in each classroom. Once the vision is clear, it is easier to recognize what needs to occur to make the vision a reality.

However, it is not enough for a school leader ,or even a leadership team, to have a clear vision of their ideal school. This vision must become a vision that is shared by those entrusted with making the vision a reality. Teachers (regular and special), parents, administrators, those who provide various related services, and others must also envision the change and "buy into" it.

Resources: Time, money, building space, manpower and other resources needed to achieve a successful change effort must be identified and provided. This may involve various political interactions at the local, state and federal levels to find or arrange for these resources.

Training: When systemic change involves shifting roles, relationships and rules by which staff and others function, staff development is crucial. For full inclusion, regular classroom teachers must expand teaching capacities to meet the needs of all students in the classroom. Special education teachers will be providing more consulting and less direct instruction. Team-teaching will be more common. These and other changes in personnel behavior require staff development.

Monitoring: To achieve the desired change, periodic, ongoing monitoring and assessment of change efforts is important. Based on the monitoring results, modifications to the improvement plan will be undertaken.

Continued assistance: Providing resources and staff development are not one-shot, up-front events. Based on monitoring and other information, additional human, financial, time, staff development and/or other resources will be necessary. Change is not an event, it is a process requiring continuing assistance to achieve the desired results.

School culture: According to Boyd (1992, p. 27), school culture is the "interplay between three factors: the attitudes and beliefs of persons inside the school and in the external environment, the cultural norms of the school and the relationships between persons in the school." In many ways the school's culture will be the "make it or break it" factor in the success of school improvement efforts. "The attitudes and beliefs of those in the school create mental models of what schooling is and how others in the school should and will respond to events and actions. It is from these attitudes and beliefs that the culture of the school is created" (Boyd, 1992, p. 29). It is important for school leaders to be aware of the attitudes, beliefs, and cultural norms of their schools and communities. In this way allies may be identified, opposition may be minimized, and change may be facilitated.

Successful school leaders also foster and develop school cultures that will facilitate change. Boyd (1992), in her synthesis of the professional literature regarding the contextual factors that impact school improvement efforts, suggests at least four cultural school norms that appear to facilitate the success of school improvement efforts. These are a norm of critical inquiry (maintaining an atmosphere where constructive criticism is sought and welcomed), a norm of continuous improvement (when problems arise, resources and training are sought and provided to resolve them), a norm of a widely shared vision (developing of a sense of purpose that is shared by parents, students, teachers, staff, administrators), and a norm of wide involvement in making decisions (paraticipating in decision-making by those affected by the change effort is essential to the success of that effort).

The Model Applied to the Case Study

It is difficult within the parameters of this paper to develop fully a model of change such as that which is proposed above. Nor is is feasible to identify and categorize within this framework all activities undertaken by the school district leadership in their full inclusion change efforts. However, some of the important activities undertaken during the planning and implementation stages of the systemic restructuring efforts are outlined below.

Facilitating leadership: The superintendent has been the primary leader of change for the parish's Safety Net efforts. With the strong support of his local school board, he has also sought out, hired and/or developed the leadership needed for the various Safety Net programs or schools, including full inclusion.

Developing and communicating the vision:

- The superintendent convened a 40-member committee, including teachers, parents, community leaders, school board members, administrators for strategic planning to develop a mission, vision and 5-year improvement plan.
- The superintendent has hired energetic, enthusiastic, competent people to head and promote the various Safety Net programs.

Planning and providing resources:

- The superintendent negotiated with state officials to "pool" various funds for specific categories of students to provide services to all students in regular classrooms.
- The superintendent negotiated with the school board to build a pre-kindergarten/Family Outreach school rather than a new middle school.
- School schedules were restructured to provide time for teachers to collaborate.
- Interagency agreements were negotiated to provide various social services to students and families in the schools.

Providing training and development:

- Staff development covering numerous issues have been provided.
- Monitoring and coaching of teachers in classrooms have been provided.

- A pre-service teacher preparation program is located in one of the inclusion schools, thereby providing a pool of new-teachers who are already trained in fully integrated classrooms.

Monitoring and checking progress:

- A full array of data is collected on student outcomes.

Continuing to give assistance:

- Faculty and administration input is solicited for future training needs based on observations/experiences.
- Grants are constantly being sought to provide financial resources to continue the Safety Net programs.

Creating an atmosphere and culture for change:

- Through the wise selection of influential and strategic people to be members of the planning team, a strong support base for the proposed changes was established.
- Community meetings helped to minimize external resistance.
- Strategic selection of program and school leaders fostered support for the school improvement efforts.
- Resistors of the changes were encouraged to leave; others were reassigned.
- As opponents to the change efforts left the school district, they were replaced by those who were more supportive.
- Collaborative opportunities have been provided and encouraged.
- School improvement efforts have been highlighted at conferences by school staff.
- Improvement efforts have been celebrated; staff have been honored.
- The leadership style of the new superintendent is one of fostering wide involvement of staff in decision-making.

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CAPPED Can Make a Difference in Rural America Schools

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Introduction

By empowering young students with career visions, we can give them a head start in the already tight job market. Urban and rural EBD (Emotional/Behavioral Disordered)students are born with disadvantages in this society that programs such as CAPPED can help correct.

Many educators and society conscious persons recognize the degree in which certain populations are deviating from the mainstream society. This problem places a greater burden on society. The term "patch work society" has been coined because the diversity of our social system. More skills are needed by educators to stitch together these patches of students, who come from many cultures with many problems, into productive citizens. Realizing this, educators such as Dr. Patrick Russo, Superintendent of Chatham County Schools, are calling upon every educator to contribute toward the vision of "effective schools". CAPPED is making its contribution.

Dr. Russo, himself has participated in this effort by serving as the "career person of the month." He took part in the game CAPPED Communication. Students (EBD and regular) took this opportunity to probe into his job description and qualifications. Their active interest and participation were impressive because of the nature of the EBD students. They were in control and gave due respect to the Superintendent. Being included with the regular students in this activity was a positive step toward mainstreaming for the EBD students.

Inclusion of special students will be a reality in the future. Recent laws pertaining to handicapped persons are clearing the way for total integration of special students into regular classes. Career awareness in the elementary school, like inclusion, is a process that has not been fully addressed. These two concepts seem to be unrelated. The idea of merging the two concepts is new. A career awareness program has many possibilities for using the inclusion process. The CAPPED Program provides a vehicle to initiate and accomplish this inclusion process.

Abstract

The CAPPED Program (Career Awareness Promotes Positive Educational Development) is a separate class, activity-based program which was first initiated at Windsor Forest Elementary school during 1991-92 school year. The program's goal is to promote inclusion of Emotional/Behavioral Disordered students into regular classes. Its objectives for the EBD students are to promote social, academic and emotional growth.

The program's activities are goal directed. Therefore, the activities address the EBD students Individual Education Plan. This equips the special teacher with specific activities which aid the students to successfully master their Individual Education Plan objectives.

Inclusion is the core of the CAPPED Program. The special students (EBD) are being prepared to re-enter regular classes. On the other hand, regular students are being prepared to accept differences among their peers. The activities presented during "inclusion" are designed to maintain the interest of all students and are career oriented.

Since the implementation of the program, twenty three identified Emotional/Behavioral Disordered students participated. Inclusion has taken place in five class rooms with 200 students participating in grades one and three. The five regular teachers volunteered to participate.

"On task behaviors" are identified as the target behaviors to determine if the career oriented activities are effective. The activities are designed to meet students social, academic and emotional needs. The results were, "On task behaviors" occurred on the average, ninety-four percent of the time, during thirty minute activities, presented by the EBD teacher. These results were obtained over a period of four and a half months and were derived from classroom teachers' observations.

A Career Awareness Program for Emotional/ Behavioral Disordered Students

The CAPPED Program (Career Awareness Promotes Positive Educational Development) is not the only program which focuses on career awareness in elementary schools. The state of Florida has schools which use a career program for their elementary students. But, CAPPED is designed to teach more than "life skills". It is therapeutic in content. It addresses the academic, social and emotional needs of Emotional/Behavioral Disordered students.

Why a Program for Career Awareness?

Emotional/Behavioral Disordered students are an "at risk" population. This population, as a whole, functions poorly in school. The "drop out" rate is highest among this population. Our institutions - penal and mental - are all too familiar with this population. The homeless segment of society is penetrated with this population. Also, our social agencies are well acquainted with them. Unemployed is the common work status for this population.

Early intervention is a "must" to redirect this population back into the mainstream of society. The self fulfilling prophecy "Whatever a child thinks- he becomes" must be based on the positive ramifications of this prophecy, not the negative. Therefore, the shaping of positive thinking must take place early in students lives, in the educational environment, in spite of the problems students bring with them to school which make them "at risk".

Career awareness is one way of shaping positive thinking. The CAPPED Program was developed with this intent. Introducing students to the world of work at the elementary level will have a positive impact on students' thinking skills and future outlook. By having a career goal and orientation, students will be better prepared to make wise career choices. Introducing career awareness at the elementary level is a plus for students. Involving the theme "career awareness" in three important aspects of students' development, social, emotional and academic, can help lay the foundation for students to become contributing members of society. The CAPPED Program is therapeutic. This is its trademark!

Emotional/ Behavioral Disordered Students Becoming Productive Members of Society

Every student, regardless of disability, should be provided with the opportunity to become acquainted with and be a participant in the world of work. Being a useful member of society is an educational goal. To achieve this goal, special children need a head start. By starting early, their chances of experiencing success in the working world are increased.
It has been documented that a sense of self worth is linked to being employed. As special educators, the responsibility of

providing this sense of self worth which will help our students to become contributing members of society, rather than burdens, rests with us. This is not a new goal, but it is one which deserves to be implemented earlier in the education of special students. The world of work is so competitive and specialized that our students have no chance of surviving without our help!

CAPPED an Early Intervention Program

The CAPPED Program is an early intervention program. It exposes elementary students to the world of work through specially designed, career-oriented activities. Its activities address the social, emotional and academic needs of students. Reinforcers are built into each activity. The activities and reinforcers target "on task behaviors" and other deficit areas. The theme, "Career Awareness," was envisioned earlier in the author's career. With the support of the principal and the EBD coordinator, the program gradually materialized in 1991. The program bonded with the regular school program, and the adhesive was "inclusion," the new direction of special education.

The activities themselves originated from the need to target the objectives on the Individualized Education Plans of Emotional/Behavioral Disordered students. Since the EBD students' social, emotional and academic needs are addressed in their Individualized Education Plans, shouldn't there be some type of life skill or career awareness plan included as part of the IEP on the elementary level? Why wait until middle school when peer pressure exerts its greatest effects? Middle grade students are very absorbed with being accepted by the "group." They do not have much desire to look beyond that need.

On the other hand, at the elementary level, the teacher is the center of the student's life. The student's interest in school, as a whole, is at its apex. Peer pressure is not an adversary. This is the opportune time to lay a foundation for career awareness.

A career exposure program at the elementary level need not be a highly structured training program. It can be structured, but should also be fun. An awareness of different careers is the focus, not specific preparation for a career. This program should nurture a child's interest in the future. Can career oriented activities provide such nurturing? Yes, if they are designed to address the needs and interests of children. The CAPPED Program's assumption is : if nurturing an interest in careers is done early in students' school experience, the results may be positive in the future.

Specially Designed activities

How can the CAPPED program nurture students? CAPPED materials are to designed to help students feel more secure in their learning environment. The activities are designed with built in reinforcers which encourage the students to share their thoughts, or feelings; activities which motivate students to learn without being inhibited; also, activities which are fun. CAPPED activities are categorized into three domains: social, emotional and academic. The design of the activities is of four types: the Academic Stories and Game; Story Poem and Game ; Wheel of Emotions; and Social Games.

Each designed activity is based on a problem, therefore "thinking" is demanded. To encourage thinking skills, solutions are built into the activity so the students are reinforced when they attempt the task. The activities also encourage students to find their own solutions. The activities are structured play, taking advantage of the fact that children appear to learn best when they use their creative minds to solve problems. (John Holt, the author of "How Children Learn" advocated that "effective learning" evolves from games. Mr. Holt's theory supports the belief that learning is stimulated when academic, social or emotional problems are resolved during structured play.)

The benefits of specially designed activities in the CAPPED Program have been observed. Special students are motivated by them. The regular teachers comment on how these activities benefit their students during inclusion. The regular students are eager for CAPPED to visit.

The Separate Class Environment

The learning environment is also crucial. In the CAPPED Program, career related visual aids are displayed in the class. The theme of the program is visible. The bulletin boards are used daily to introduce the program. Behavior charts and students' work are displayed. These visual aids identify the class as being a class in career awareness. The students are not stigmatized because they are in a special class. The self fulfilling prophecy is, "I'm learning to be the best that I can be." This is not an EBD class but "a class that is directing me toward career awareness."

In the separate class environment, many of the standard materials are used to teach specific skills, but, the specially designed materials serve as catalysts to stimulate learning, and to keep students actively involved.

These materials have also benefited the regular students. One teacher reported that the story game, Grandfather Time Keeper, taught her first graders more about telling time and sooner than any other teaching technique she had used in the past. Many other skills were taught with the use of this activity: listening, waiting turn, following directions, and learning to tell time to the hour and half hour. Even though her class was not identified as having problems with "on task skills," it was observed that improvement occured.

Another feature of the CAPPED Program is the incentive part. EBD students are encouraged to work toward becoming the employee of the month. An inexpensive party is given and a career person of the month is invited to speak. The students earn bonus cards daily for appropriate behaviors, in order to become employee of the month.

Conclusion

The CAPPED program is innovative, because of its career focus, and its special activities, that are proving to work successfully in the separate class and in the regular classes. But a program which emphasizes career awareness removes the stigma of a student being problem learners. Being a "high interest" program, all students who participate respond positively to all activities presented. In addition, regular teachers are more cooperative and supportive of a program that includes them.

Since CAPPED has targeted many academic, social and emotional behaviors in its activities; the common factor that is necessary to make these activities successful is "on task behaviors". This paper has used "on task behaviors" to measure the success of CAPPED in the separate class and CAPPED during inclusion which is in the regular classes. The results based on five participating classes revealed "on task behaviors" occured on the average about ninety-four percent of the time during inclusion for a thirty minute period, and it occured ninety percent of the time in the separate class. For four and a half months these results were consistent. The results were derived from observations by classroom teachers.

The program has many other benefits such as improving self esteem, including special students in the regular school program, and motivating students to learn. It is inexpensive to implement.The CAPPED Program has enjoyed other positive results. The CAPPED Program has produced a ninety-six percent attendance rate over a period of a year and a half. There have been no suspensions from school in that time frame.

Rural schools are sure to benefit from a program that nurtures the special student and keeps regular students on task, making learning possible. Including special students in a special program, such as CAPPED, is a positive, educational move in a future direction!

Purpose

As a low-cost intervention program, CAPPED is designed to address the academic, social and emotional needs of Emotional/ Behavioral Disordered students, who are placed in a separate class but, by program's design, are included in regular classes. Since CAPPED is comprehensive, only one aspect of learning which affects students academic progress will be analyzed. This is "on task behaviors". This measure analyses positive affects of career-oriented activities, upon students' " on task behaviors," while in the separate class and during inclusion with their peers. By presenting data on this crucial aspect of learning, Rural America Schools may decide the feasibility of this program.

Problem

Emotional/ Behavioral Disordered students are an "at risk" population, what intervention can be used to bring these students into mainstream society?

Definition

"On task behaviors" are defined as listening, focusing , participating and following directions.

Hypothesis

Application of CAPPED Program's Activities will result in increased "On task behaviors".

Materials

1. Grandfather Time Keeper
2. Other CAPPED Activities
3. CAPPED Bonus Cards
4. Charts
5. Bulletin Boards
6. Games
7. Stories
8. Poems

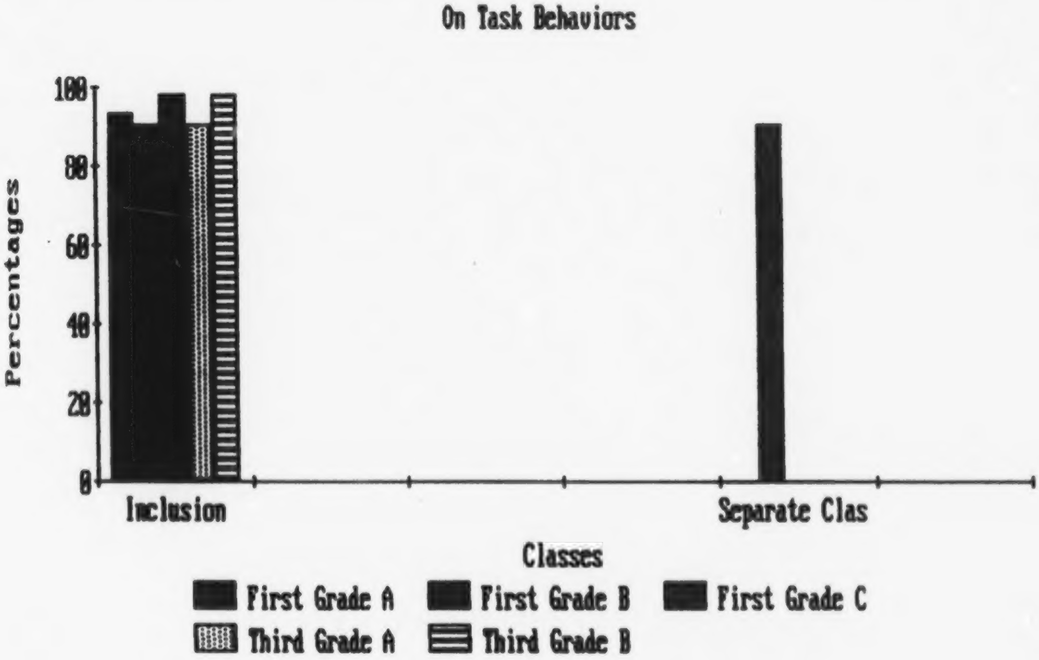
Procedures

I. Separate Class Environment
    - A. Preparing for a career - oriented, specially designed activity for EBD students in the separate class
        1. Specific rules are stated by special teacher, examples:
            - a. Clear desk
            - b. Heads on desk(to calm students)
            - c. You are working on - following directions, eye contact, listening and focusing
            - d. Please sit up
        2. The activity is presented by the special teacher (there are two forms: story-based and game or game only)
            - a. Story - based
                1. Special teacher reads the story
                2. Then from story draws questions to see how well students understand
                3. Uses one of the specially designed games to reinforce the lesson in the story.
                4. Teacher uses verbal praise for appropriate behaviors

            5. Rewards students who exhibited "on task behaviors "with bonus cards.
    - B. Game only
        1. Teacher explains the game
        2. Reviews appropriate rules
        3. Assigns responsibilities to students when appropriate
        4. When students fully understand the game they are allowed to facilitate
        5. Teacher uses verbal praise and "bonus cards" to reward "on task behaviors"
- II. Regular Class Environment
    - A. Preparing for a career - oriented specially designed activity for EBD and Regular students
        1. Regular teacher signs up for a specific activity
        2. The special class and teacher travels to the regular class
        3. The special teacher presents the activity
    - B. Presenting the Activity During Inclusion
        1. The activity is presented in the same manner as in separate class(class is divided into groups).
        2. Special and Regular teachers use verbal praise.
        3. Bonus cards are given to groups for demonstrating"on task behaviors"
        4. The number of cards a group receives is recorded. The groups with the highest number of cards are declared "winners".

Results

This data reflects four and one half months of "on task behaviors" exhibited by first, second and third graders participating in the CAPPED Program in two different environments: the separate class (EBD students) and inclusion in regular class (EBD and regular students). On an average, the time involved is thirty minutes per week. The separate class has grades 1-3 and is activity-based.



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A Recipe for Successful Regular Classroom Integration

Consider two cooks, one marvelous while the other is mediocre. The marvelous cook begins from scratch and if a recipe is used at all, it is merely a reminder of the needed quantity of ingredient. This "Artist of the Kitchen" sees uniqueness in the ingredients and artistry in their combination.

Conversely, the mediocre cook follows the recipe directions almost religiously down to the last dash of salt. Yet, the finished product can only be described as palatable at best. Thus, where one cook seizes the opportunity to be creative and flexible, the other sees only time, effort, toil, and drudgery.

What, one might ask, does all of this have to do with special education, particularly the subject of integration of mildly handicapped students into the regular classroom? In reality these situations are very analogous. For example, a recipe consists of both a list of ingredients and sequential steps. Thus, both content (ingredients) and application of specific steps are necessary to bring the recipe to fruition. These same two basic components interact to bring about the successful integration of mildly handicapped students. What then separates the marvelous teacher from one who is best described as mediocre? Even though a teacher has acquired knowledge of the "ingredients" (e.g. facts, materials, skills, methodologies), there are no guarantees he/she will know how, when, and why to use them.

The outstanding teacher not only has mastered a repertoire of competencies and uses proven methods, but knows when and how to apply these competencies. The effective teacher knows the lives of his/her students did not begin the day they entered school and certainly will not end the day they exit school. Like the marvelous cook, he/she gives serious consideration to the end product and is flexible enough to adjust the process in order to achieve the desired goal. Thus, while the mediocre cook is merely following the directions, the marvelous cook has a vision.

Moreover, what makes learning truly delicious for mildly handicapped students as opposed to merely palatable? All too often mildly handicapped students are going through the motions of school. Their attitude is, "I'm at school, do school to me." Effective teachers counteract this by giving purpose to the efforts of their students. They empower students in order to foster independence and responsibility for decision making. These students are not merely going through the motions of school on a never ending Special education treadmill but rather are actively engaged in learning.

If indeed one believes an actual foolproof integration recipe exists, complete with a list of simple ingredients followed by specific steps, it is no wonder disappointment might ensue. Training teachers to follow a specific recipe is not likely to result in more effective integration of mildly handicapped students into the regular classroom. Rather effective teachers, like marvelous cooks faced with the challenge of integration, see possibilities, flexibility, and opportunities for methods to positively impact the lives of mildly handicapped students.

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Using Law-Related Education as a Lifeline for Rural At-Risk Students

Teaching about the law is by no means a novel idea. The traditional rote memorization of legal facts, however, has given way to the more relevant approach of law-related education (LRE). LRE can be defined as

> education to give people an adequate base of knowledge, understanding, and training about the law, the legal process, and the legal system that, as part of their general education, enables them to be more informed and effective citizens. (Study Group on Law-Related Education, 1978, p. 13).

LRE was conceived by Isidore Starr as a chance occurrence in the 1930s. At that time Starr taught social studies at a high school in the day time to finance his tuition to evening law school. He included some of the concepts he was studying at night, such as constitutional law, criminal law, torts and contracts, in his day-time social studies classes. He professed amazement on the effect of law-related discussions on the interest and quality of student thinking (Starr, 1977).

After being admitted to the Bar, Starr remained an educator committed to the law studies movement. Over a twelve-year period he wrote a series of articles encouraging teachers to use case studies dealing with controversial public issues. Finally in 1962 the National Council for Social Studies (of which Starr was serving as vice-president) joined forces with the Civil Liberties Educational Foundation to develop a program for improving the teaching of the Bill of Rights in the Schools. Also in 1962, Supreme Court Justice William Brennan addressed the annual meeting of the National Council for Social Studies on teaching the Bill of Rights. Brennan encouraged the study of landmark judicial rulings to transform the current rote memorization instruction in civil liberties. Thus, by the end of 1962, interest in Law-Related Education (LRE) was spreading nation-wide (Starr, 1977).

In discussing the motivation of individuals to give early support to the LRE movement. Starr (1977) identified the following factors of law (or case) study instruction:

(1) was needed to give meaning and relevance to the study of the Constitution and Bill of Rights;

(2) was a means of assisting students in coping with law-related problems;

(3) would lead to an understanding of the nature of law in our society;

(4) would help in the development of analytical skills in confronting value conflicts;

(5) would assist in probing moral and ethical dilemmas; and

(6) would help develop an appreciation for legal process and for the bases of law.

Today, theorists in the discipline of social studies have identified four reasons for including LRE in the curriculum. These points are as follows: (a) development of knowledge, skills, and attitudes needed for citizenship; (b) growth of student interest in social studies; (c) provision of breath and depth to education in social studies; and (d) prevention of delinquency (Pereira. 1988).

LRE effectiveness with youth at-risk with the law

In 1979 the Office of Juvenile Justice and Delinquency Prevention of the U.S. Department of Justice became interested in the possibilities of LRE. Over the next five years five nationally known organizations were funded to develop and demonstrate effective methods of implementing and institutionalizing law-related education in elementary and secondary schools. In conjunction with these projects, research was conducted to determine how the implementation of LRE principles might affect antecedent factors and conditions that juvenile delinquency research shows are associated with delinquent behavior.

Hunter (1987) reported on a study involving 1600 LRE students and 900 comparison students representing 61 LRE classes and 44 comparison classes in 32 schools in California, Colorado, Illinois, Michigan, Missouri, and North Carolina. Students were administered pre- and post-tests in which a set of self-reported items to measure changes in delinquent behavior that could be attributed to students' participation in LRE classes were included.

Results indicate that there were significant differences between the LRE and control groups on the following:

--favorable interactions with parents
--favorable ratings by student of teacher and class
--perception that something worthwhile results from maintaining good standing in a legitimate role
--strong attachment to other persons in the youth's environment
--positive attitude toward police and judges
--decreased rationalizations of deviance and violence
--heightened perception of fairness
--more positive peer relationships
--decrease (self-reported) in school infractions and violence
--decrease in alcohol and drug use

Although significant differences were found between the two groups in high school, junior high school and elementary school classes, the greatest effect was at the junior high school level.

Accongio and Vaughan (1987) reported a study of over 400 students at a high school in Rochester, NY. Law Magnet School students formed the experimental group, while selected classes in the comprehensive program at the high school were used as controls. Both groups were administered pre- and post-tests. Results indicated that Law Magnet students made a statistically significant movement toward believing they could exercise control over their own lives in this society and can effect changes.

Johnson (1984) reported on a study at a junior high school in Colorado. Evaluators obtained matched pre- and post-test data from 229 LRE students and 43 control subjects. Significant results indicated the LRE students reporting:

--perceiving opportunities for demonstrating competence to teachers
--really liking some teachers and believing they care about you as a person
--teachers offering support to build your interest and help you
--timely completion of assignments and coming to class prepared to participate
--reduced clockwatching in this class
--favorable attitudes toward the police
--favorable attitudes toward personal violence
--decreased rationalizations that delinquent behavior is sometimes acceptable
--belief that you are treated fairly in school with respect to rules, grades
--perception that the rules in this class are applied the same to everybody
--students in this class are willing to help one another with questions, course work
--when other students speak in this class, they have something worthwhile to say
--other students in this class pay attention when you are talking
--decrease in school rule infractions
--decrease in drinking alcohol
--decrease in going out with a group planning to fight or break the law
--perception that the teacher in this class grades fairly

The commonalities in results of the research reported above is striking. It appears that effective LRE programs do, indeed, bring about changes in attitude on many factors which represent pre-delinquent behavior.

Project NEXUS

Project NEXUS is an example of a LRE program designed to address both dropout prevention and other pre-delinquent factors identified in LRE research--specifically for a rural mountainous region. The program, funded for 1989-90 by the Maehling Fellowship Fund from the National Foundation for the Improvement of Education, was implemented in Ellijay Middle School in the North Georgia Appalachian town of Ellijay.

Ellijay is remote from any large urban area and devoid of cultural resources such as museums, zoos, live theater, and outside activities beyond those provided by the school. The major industries of the area are apple orchards, broiler chickens, and some light industry. Many workers travel some distance to the carpet mills of Dalton for blue-collar, minimum wage jobs. The population of the county is approximately 10,000, with Ellijay being its only major town. There is a high unemployment rate because of the seasonal nature of these industries, and this impacts upon the schools. Some 33% of the population live in mobile type housing. The area has above average Georgia rates for teen-age pregnancies and unemployment, and ranks first in high school dropouts at 33.05% for 16 to 19 year olds.

Project implementation A group of approximately 25 students were originally chosen who had one or more of the following characteristics: high number of discipline referrals, frequent absenteeism, family instability, and economic and emotional needs. Students were invited to join: those who were not interested were not encouraged to stay. An average of 15-18 students remained with the project through the first year, attending weekly meetings during the regular activity period scheduled on Friday afternoon.

Many community law-related resource persons were used as speakers for the weekly meetings, such as: local judges (probate, magistrate, city recorder's court, superior court), the sheriff, state prison personnel, a prisoner from a local prison camp, local attorneys, and court personnel. The focus of the meetings was heavily geared toward respect for the law, concepts of law, citizen rights, and court procedures.

It was intended that students get to know their local law-related personnel and be able to communicate with them in a relaxed manner, in order to develop respect for the individuals and concern for the functions that these key people play in the local community. There was no testing of knowledge, but students were encouraged to ask any questions they had of their special guests.

An important second goal of the program was the emphasis on enrichment through field trips. A survey was taken at the beginning of the year to determine student interest--the Atlanta Zoo came out on top. Saturday field trips were taken to the zoo, with a picnic lunch in Grant Park, and a trip to nearby Cyclorama (a historic circular painting of the Civil War). Another Saturday field trip took them to an Atlanta Symphony's special children's program--with front row seats, a visit to the High Museum of Art, and lunch at The Varsity--a favorite Georgia Tech student hangout. On the more serious side, another Saturday field trip was to see actual juvenile hearings at the metropolitan area Teen Court in Cobb County.

Two other trips were made during the year. The first was an orientation tour to the local courthouse. The Clerk of Courts enabled students to see what functions of government were conducted there. A local attorney met the students in an empty court room and led them through the steps in a criminal trial. The second courthouse trip was to visit a live trial in the Superior Court, a case in substance possession and abuse which ended in a guilty verdict. After the trial, the defense attorney was invited to the classroom to discuss the trial with the students.

An important part of forming group cohesion was the wearing of the NEXUS t-shirt, which was awarded after the student had attended a minimum number of meetings. One student who had been suspended from school by the time the t-shirts had arrived, was still interested in getting his shirt and wearing it.

In the spring of the year, NEXUS hosted the Law Week activities, promoted by the American Bar Association (ABA), the state and local bar, as well as the Georgia Law-Related Education Consortium. Activities included poster contests held throughout the school using the ABA theme "Generations of Justice".

An awards breakfast was held and many members of the local law community attended, including one of the two Superior Court judges who had previously spoken at a school-wide assembly hosted by the NEXUS students. Awards were given for the "Outstanding NEXUS Student" and to others who had helped with the program. Small plaques engraved with individual student names were given to each NEXUS member. Local school dignitaries also participated in the program.

The program was continued for a second year--during the 1990-91 school year. Program meeting time was changed from the very hectic Friday afternoon club time to a twice monthly slot during physical education or exploratory class time. Now an understanding was reached with the administration that students were to be released from in-school suspension to attend meetings. (In the previous year club time was taken away from students who had received too many infractions of the rules and proved to be an impediment to getting the students to NEXUS meetings.)

The very adequate Maehling Fellowship funding was not available for the second year. In its place the Appalachian Mountain Circuit Bar Association assessed all its members a special "fee" for the NEXUS Program. This was nowhere near the amount needed to duplicate the previous year's program, but did provide support for the 1991 Law Week activities again in the spring. A local civic club assisted with providing T-shirts for the new group and with an awards breakfast. Field trips were limited to the local courthouse. In spite of the limitations, students appeared to enjoy the second year too.

Evaluation The most useful measurement tool was a teacher attitude assessment which was completed by classroom teachers of each NEXUS student. Teachers noted much advancement in the following areas: classroom participation, cooperation with teacher, and better adjustment to classroom environment. Some increase was noted also in students being tardy to class less often, in student attendance and in decreased disruption in class. No improvement was noted in overall student grades nor in coming to class well-prepared.

Another measurement was done by simply interviewing each student about the NEXUS experience and whether the student would like to be a member for another year if given the opportunity. All but one student stated that they would like to join another year if given the opportunity. All students verbalized some positive experience from the activity.

Using school attendance records as a measurement was unsuccessful, however. The school had an epidemic of measles during the 1989-90 school year, which distorted the figures.

Members of the legal community, the media, and school personnel made many positive comments about the program and offered support. Nearly every invitee came to the breakfasts; many more school personnel wanted to be invited the second year. The Project received a Special Commendation for 1990 in the Oldsmobile Division--Learning Magazine Awards. The Project sponsor was named runner-up for the Middle School Division for National Law Auxiliary Awards for 1991. The Project has become an on-going program recommended by the Georgia Law-Related Education Consortium.

Components of an effective program

Effective LRE programs, such as Project NEXUS, go far beyond the civics course which teaches facts. To achieve the four basic goals of an LRE curriculum [(a) development of knowledge, skills, and attitudes needed for citizenship; (b) growth of student interest in social studies; (c) provision of breadth and depth to education in the social studies; and (d) prevention of delinquency], however, necessitates the inclusion of the five common characteristics of LRE programs which have been proven effective. These are:

(1) use of teaching strategies that foster true interaction and joint work among students,
(2) judicious selection and presentation of illustrative case materials,
(3) provision of a sufficient quantity of instruction,
(4) adequate preparation and use of outside resource persons,
(5) professional peer support for teachers, and
(5) active involvement of building administrators (Little, 1982).

Merely having students sit together filling out individual work sheets does not represent true interaction. Instead, activities must be structured to develop the kind of interaction and interdependence among students that results in positive attitude changes. In order to accomplish this, students must first develop skills to deal with the controversy and conflict that inevitably arise when groups work together. Then, group exercises must be structured along the guidelines specified by the theorists in cooperative learning (Johnson & Johnson,1984; Slavin, 1991). Finally, teachers must be committed to foster student to student interaction, instead of having teacher-dominated or teacher and high-achieving students-dominated lessons.

When selecting case materials, teachers need to exercise caution. Cases should not consistently depict the legal system as flawless, nor should they be excessively negative. The goal must be to strike a balance between respect for the law and healthy skepticism about its application.

Sufficient time must be devoted to LRE lessons to treat complex issues. Teachers need to clearly organize and sequence instruction, integrate new ideas with practical applications, and provide checks on understanding and mastery. It is recommended that programs of study be at least a semester in length (Little & Haley, 1982).

The use of outside resource persons is crucial to an effective LRE program. By virtue of their real world involvement and credibility, outsiders have the ability to influence students' views of and attitudes toward the law. These persons can also be used as adult role models. When inviting these individuals to the classroom, however, it is imperative to prepare them as to the level of understanding of the students, as well as the specific subject matter to be discussed.

Peer support is necessary to facilitate teachers in their implementation of new programs. If several teachers began LRE programs at the same time, they could discuss with each other "how it was going", observe practices in action, and have the opportunity for shared planning.

Finally, successful LRE programs had active support of building administrators. Such administrators would provide opportunities for peer support, reinforce teachers in their LRE attempts, and defend experimenting teachers against sources of strain.

It is imperative that the above five points be incorporated in every LRE program. Research has identified such points as common to effective programs. LRE programs which just "teach about the law" in the traditional way are useful only for imparting facts--not affecting attitudes.

LRE resources

It is not necessary to create all one's ideas and materials for a LRE program--many such resources currently exist. Helpful resources include:

American Bar Association. *Update on LRE.* 750 North Lake Shore Dr., Chicago, IL 60611.

Carl Vinson Institute of Government. *LRE Circuit.* University of Georgia, 201 N. Milledge Ave., Athens, GA 30602.

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INNOVATIONS FOR RURAL SCHOOL DISTRICTS IN TRANSITION SERVICES: EFFECTIVE PROGRAMMING WILL LEAD TO EFFECTIVE TRANSITIONING

The Center for Change in Transition Services is a collaborative endeavor of the Office of the Superintendent of Public Instruction, Department of Vocational Rehabilitation, and the University of Washington. Training is offered to school districts throughout Washington state. This training is available to district teams made up of individuals such as: administrators, teachers, counselors, parents, and adult service agencies serving the school districts. Our goals reflect a desire to improve the quality of life for students in special education programs by:

1. Improving success in post-secondary settings
2. Increasing competitive job options with livable wages and health benefits
3. To increase appropriate living options as well as a variety of social and recreational options
4. To promote good citizenship

The Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (P.L. 101-476) has identified transition services as a major focus for special needs students from age 16 - 21. Transition services are defined as a coordinated set of activities for a student, designed within an outcome oriented process which promotes movement from school to post-school activities, including post-secondary education, vocational training, integrated employment (including supported employment), continuing and adult education, adult services, independent living, or community participation. Transition is a process for all students, consisting of an array of services which include curricular options plus a commitment to continued service. These services also need to include support systems in place for families and students.

Washington Administrative Code stipulates that transition planning will consist of an array of services identified as four elements:

- Functional vocational evaluation
- Statement of anticipated post-school outcome
- Transition goals and objectives based on needs from the anticipated post school outcomes and related specific secondary curriculum
- Statement of interagency linkages both during secondary school and after leaving

A functional vocational evaluation identifies a student's interests, abilities and the availability of jobs in the area to identify prospective training sites. This evaluation provides an on-going assessment of options for post-school outcomes. Hence, we are able to develop goals and objectives to meet individual needs.

Linkages with adult service agencies are critical in the transition process. The Center for Change in Transition Services assists districts in establishing a formal interagency team in preparation for moving a student from school to work. The Center also assists in pulling together community resources which will enable districts to facilitate job placement, family support, community and recreational activities, and citizenship activities. Self-advocacy is also a component of the adult service linkage. Students are provided with flexible, on-going support as needed to provide for successful transition.

The Center for Change in Transition Services identifies three major components of transition planning that are critical for achieving the desired outcomes to include:

1) Thoughtful futures-based planning by the student, the parents, school staff, and community adult service providers that begins at least by the time the student reaches the age of 16. This planning must address the interests and aptitudes of the student, the interests of the parents, and the available options in the school and the community. The planning should be outcome-based and linkages to existing community resources should be identified in the planning process.

2) Changes in the available secondary curriculum that students may access depending on their anticipated post-school outcome. These options should include: academic preparation for post-secondary education, vocational training in specific occupational areas, training in supportive employment and supportive community living, and community-based work preparation/apprenticeship opportunities.

3) The development of interagency community groups that will come together to coordinate adult services for youth with disabilities in transition and will address the issue of making the local community more accommodating for individuals with disabilities.

There is a strong need for rural transition programs to assist students with disabilities in the transition from school to work. Many rural communities lack the wide spectrum of services available to urban districts. Rural areas also may not have a variety of employers to provide job training and future employment for individuals with disabilities; some rural communities lack any local employment or industry. With these concerns in mind, it becomes a major challenge for rural districts to plan and implement effective transition plans.

Rural school districts in Washington are a major focus for our project. Forty-two percent of the districts in our state are identified as rural. The Center views these school districts as importantly as those districts surrounding the major metropolitan areas in Washington. They are more seriously impacted when providing services due to such factors as distance from major employers, limited transportation, diverse cultural needs among the students and families, funding limitations, too few staff to provide services, and limited access to current inservice teacher training options. With these concerns, we propose a look at 2 of our 4 models as a base in which to begin a focus toward program modifications for the education of special needs students along with meeting the requirements of P.L. 101-476.

Vocational education/special education offers direct instructional support in the regular vocational education environment. A collaborative effort is generated with the support of vocational education and special education staff. For some students a systematic vocational education program significantly increases the probability that graduates will obtain competitive employment at exit from school.

Community-based apprenticeship offers academic and vocational skills training utilizing community work sites with the desired outcome being competitive employment. Students participating in this model include LD, BD, and MMR populations who experience less success in mainstream classes. This model may be similar to the "old fashion" work study programs and the supported employment programs for severely involved students. The European options for apprenticeship programs are discussed and considered around this new model, as well.

District teams participate in our 30-hour training sessions. They may apply for follow-up technical assistance by the trainer which is accompanied by a stipend of $3000 - 8000. This technical assistance may include assistance in meshing the two models together to meet the needs of their particular district/community.

Rural districts that did not participate in training this year were provided with a $2000 stipend if they applied for a discretionary transition grant. If selected, we provided follow-up to districts on implementation of some aspect of transition services. Those rural districts that were not awarded the grant moneys this year were also followed up by one of our staff members to discuss their needs for the future.

Inservice teacher training must be made available to rural school districts under the new mandate for special education services. The process of implementing change and program modifications will provide a new direction for students in these programs. We believe that a new focus toward school to work transition services along with needed assistance in the areas of leisure/recreation and community service will provide a meaningful education for students with disabilities. It is our desire to improve the ability of school districts to provide students with training toward an outcome of full, adult participation within their own community. This would include competitive employment with health benefits and a competitive salary above minimum wage, a chance to understand one's own community so as to participate fully, and the ability to identify recreational activities that would bring fulfillment to any individual. With the support of the school district, families, the student, and community members, we believe this may be possible.

Resource Room - Post Secondary Prep Program

Special Education

Special Skill Training	Community Involvement	Internship Year
1. Study Skills Instruction One period/day OR after school Deshler/Archer/Adapt Focus on current course work to teach skills	1. Volunteering in Community Community service	1. Meeting Disabled Student Coordinator
2. Word processing skills Class or special instruction Spell check, grammar check All paper typed Provide equipment	2. Life Long Recreational Pursuits	2. Visit Colleges
3. Self Advocacy Awareness of own disability Methods to compensate Practice in requesting reasonable accommodation	3. Association with Formal Community Groups Church Interest clubs	3. Formal Association with Self Advocacy Group
4. Stress Reduction Activities	4. Career Related Paid Employment	4 Peer Support Groups
5. Social Skills Advice		
6. Peer Support Group		
7. Practice College Course Summer, night school		

Resource Room - Post Secondary Prep Program

Regular Education / Mainstream Involvement

Academics	Social	Preparation for Post Secondary Settings
1. College Prep Classes	1. Age Appropriate Interests	1. Career Awareness Activities
Instructors with high standards	Activities	Aptitude testing
Peers with plans to go to college	Music	Interest inventories
Credits needed for entrance	Parties	Career fairs
	Dances	Field trips
2. Academic Skills		Counselor services
Gathering information	2. Friends/Acquaintances	
Expressing ideas/oral-written		2. Visiting Institutions of Higher Learning
Synthesizing information	3. Extra Curricular Activities	
Problem solving	Clubs	3. Obtaining Entrance Requirements/ Financial Aid Information
Content facts	Music	
	Sports	
3. Working with Others on Projects	Drama	
Cooperative learning	Service Groups	
Group projects		

Vocational/Special Education Collaborative Program

Grades 9-10

Academics	Employment Training/Placement	Community/Social
1. Academic Skills	1. Aptitude evaluation	1. Age appropriate interests
Citizenship	2. Interest inventories	Activities
Problem solving	3. Career Fairs	Music
Study skills	4. Community exploration	Parties
Group interaction skills	5. Job shadowing	Dances
Following directions	6. Summer Employment	2. Friends/Acquaintances
Adaptive skills as needed	7. Job Clubs	3. Extra Curricular Activities
2. Vocational Skills		Clubs
Pre-requisite skills/classes for vocational placement		Music
		Sports
Intro. to Voc. Class		Drama
Vocational awareness class or activities.		Service Groups
		4. Life long recreational pursuits
		5. Social skills training
		Peer and adult interaction skills
		Communication skills

Vocational/Special Education Collaborative Program

Grades 11-12

Academics	Employment Training/Placement	Community/Social
1. Academic Skills Credits needed for entrance to post secondary vocational program Support in vocational program Citizenship Graduation requirement, if appropriate Self advocacy	1. Aptitude evaluation 2. Interest inventory 3. Vocational Placements 4. Summer Employment 5. JTPA 6. Linkages to adult/community resources 7. Transportation Driver's license	1. Same

Vocational Education/Special Education Collaborative Program

Internship Year

Vocational

1. Placement in post-secondary vocational program or competitive employment
2. Support until placement is secure

Community Based Apprenticeship Program

Grades 9-10

Academics	Employment Training/Placement	Community/Social
1. Citizenship Skills for the 21st Century Integrated Curriculum Portfolio Graduation credits	1. Aptitude Evaluation	1. Age Appropriate Interests Activities Music Parties Dances
2. Content Local focus for: History Geography Government Cultural Literature Recreational Literature Ecological Issues Personal Health	2. Interest Inventories	2. Friends/Acquaintances
3. Skills Gathering information Expressing ideas/oral-written Synthesizing information Problem solving Content facts Word processing	3. Career Fairs	3. Extra Curricular Activities Clubs Music Sports Drama Service Groups
4. Working with Others on Projects Cooperative learning Group projects	4. Community Exploration	4. Volunteering in Community
5. Self Advocacy	5. Systematic Exposure to Occupation Units Field trips Speakers	5. Life Long Recreational Pursuits
6. Stress Reduction	6. Job Shadowing	6. Association with Formal Community Groups Churches Interest Clubs
	7. Summer Employment	7. Social Skills Training
	8. Job Clubs	8. Peer Support Groups

Community Based Apprenticeship Program

Grades 11-12

Academics	Employment Training/Placement	Community/Social
1. **Citizenship for the 21st Century** Integrated Curriculum Portfolio Graduation credits	1. **Job Selection** - 4-6 months/job	1. **Age Appropriate Interests** Activities Music Parties Dances
2. **Content** National/World Focus: History Geography Government Culture Literature Recreational Literature Ecological Issues Personal Health	2. **On the job Training** **Academic instruction for specific job related skill**	2. **Friends/Acquaintances**
3. **Skills** Gathering information Expressing ideas/oral-written Synthesizing information Problem solving Content facts Word processing	3. **Job Club**	3. **Extra Curricular Activities** Clubs Music Sports Drama Service Groups
4. **Working with Others**	4. **Systematic Evaluations by Employer**	4. **Volunteering in Community**
5. **Self Advocacy**	5. **Resource Development**	5. **Life Long Recreational Pursuits**
6. **Stress Reduction**	6. **Letters of Recommendation**	6. **Association with Formal Community Groups** Churches Interest Clubs
		7. **Social Skills Training**
		8. **Peer Support Groups**

Community Based Apprenticeship Program

Internship Year(s)

Employment/Training/Placement	Community/Social
1. Continue as in grades 11-12 until appropriate job is secured (livable wages, health benefits, student/parent satisfaction, opportunity for advancement)	1. Friends 2. Life Long Recreational Activities 3. Association with Formal Community Group 4. Adult Services as Needed DVR Mental Health 5. Housing/Living Arrangements Plan for move to independence 6. Transportation Driver's license 7. Formal hookup to Advocacy Group

SUPPORTED EMPLOYMENT PROGRAM

AGE 14-18

CURRICULUM GOALS: Job Skills, Work Support Behaviors, Choice, Flexibility, Placement in a Paid Job

FUNCTIONAL ACADEMICS	COMMUNITY LIVING/SOCIAL	SKILLS EMBEDDED WITHIN IEP ACTIVITIES
reading & writing: looking at books, photo journals, sequence cards, writing grocery lists **money handling** **time management**	**self-management:** eating/food preparation, hygiene, safety & health **vocational: school based work experience** (14-16)*-*job clusters*: agriculture, construction, distribution, domestic services, food prep., health, machine operation, office/building -*training formats:* individual jobs, enclaves, mobile work crews *Students spend approximately 15% of the school week in the community receiving specific instruction. **community based work experience** (17-18)*-*job clusters*: agriculture, construction, distribution, domestic services, food prep., health, machine operation, office/building -*training formats:* individual jobs, enclaves, mobile work crews *Students spend approximately 35% of the school week in community work experience (at least 2 per year). **recreation/leisure:** -extracurricular activities, activities to be done alone, activities to be done with friends **general community functioning:** travel, safety, shopping, eating out	**social skills:** functional within everyday situations, promote peer interactions & friendships **communication skills**: choice provided (technique, symbol system) **motor skills**: functional, training in normalized settings

SUPPORTED EMPLOYMENT PROGRAM

INTERNSHIP YEARS (AGE 18-21)

CURRICULUM GOALS: Job Skills, Work Support Behaviors, Choice, Flexibility, Placement in a Paid Job

FUNCTIONAL ACADEMICS	COMMUNITY LIVING/SOCIAL	SKILLS EMBEDDED WITHIN IEP ACTIVITIES
reading & writing: looking at books, photo journals, sequence cards, writing grocery lists **money handling** **time management** *learning & practice in normalized settings*	**self-management:** eating/food preparation, hygiene, safety & health **vocational:** community based work experience* *-job clusters*: agriculture, construction, distribution, domestic services, food prep., health, machine operation, office/building *-training formats:* individual jobs, enclaves, mobile work crews *Students spend 50% of the school week or more in community job. At age 20, the schedule should reflect the post-secondary schedule. **recreation/leisure:** -extracurricular activities, activities to be done alone, activities to be done with friends *learning & practice in community settings e.g., community college, health/fitness center, YMCA, etc.* **general community functioning:** travel, safety, shopping, eating out	**social skills:** functional within everyday situations, promote peer interactions & friendships, focus on work related behaviors participation in community events, activities (festival committees, service clubs) **communication skills**: choice provided (technique, symbol system, appropriate & functional within work environment) **motor skills**: functional, training in normalized settings

Quality Television Instruction:
What are its Essential Components?

by

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Introduction

Focus Group Interviews

Data for this presentation were gathered using focus group interview strategies (Morgan, 1988). A focus group typically consists of a relatively homogeneous group of participants, usually numbering six to eight. As in an individual interview, participants are asked to respond to questions posed by an interviewer. However, in a focus group, participants hear the responses of others, discuss these responses with each other, and make additional comments based on the interactions that have occurred.

Four focus group interviews were conducted These groups represented respectively KULC administrators, experienced KULC instructors, EDNET administrators, and seasoned EDNET instructors. Each of the interviews lasted approximately one and one half hours. A video and audio tape record of each focus group was made. These taped records were then transcribed for use during the analysis portion of the studies.

Description Television Delivery Systems

KULC, Utah's learning channel, is a broadcast television delivery system that serves the greater Salt Lake and Ogden areas. This station provides college course work and other educational programming throughout the day and well into evening hours. Instructors who teach on this system interact with their students primarily through telephone lines. EDNET is a duplex television system. It provides two-way audio and visual interactivity for more than thirty sites throughout the state of Utah. Instructors who teach on this system are able to see as well as hear the students whom they teach.

Method

Participant Selection

Qualitative inquiry often utilizes a small sample of participants selected because of their experience with or knowledge about a topic (Goetz & LeCompte, 1984; Patton, 1990). Experienced administrators and instructors of each of the Utah Education Network systems were invited to participate in the focus group interviews. Invitations to participate in the focus groups were distributed by the Utah Education Network.

Data Analysis Procedures

Patton (1990) describes the challenge of qualitative data analysis as an intellectual process designed to "make sense of massive amounts of data, reduce the volume of information, identify significant patterns, and construct a framework for communicating the essence of what the data reveal" (p. 371-372). The analysis of the data for these studies was completed in a sequence of steps beginning with the five investigators independently reading each of the focus group transcripts. Two of the investigators coded participants' responses using categories that evolved during their analysis. The other three investigators examined the data for general themes and patterns. The five met to compare analysis strategies and discuss initial impressions of the data.

After this initial meeting, five subsequent meetings were convened to further discuss the themes which had emerged from the data and to clarify specific findings. Each focus group interview was written up and read by each of the investigators. Final drafts were then completed for submission to the Utah Education Network.

Results

Instructors' Perceptions

Instructors in each of the delivery systems had a difficult time precisely defining the critical aspects of quality television instruction. However, as each of the focus group discussions proceeded, a variety of themes began to emerge. Some of these themes were related to the processes involved in developing and creating telecourses. Other themes dealt with various components of the telecourses, namely, interaction and the use of facilitators.

Instructors in both of the focus groups expressed very strong views about the importance of planning and preparation time for telecourse development. Instructors felt that they should be released from all or part of the major teaching assignments to plan and prepare telecourses. In addition to the released time, they also thought that a variety resources should be made available. These included resources for developing graphics and visuals suitable to the television format, assistance in designing course sessions and learner support materials, training specifically related to collaboratively with other television personnel (producers and directors).

Another theme which surfaced in both of the instructor focus groups was interaction. Comments dealing with interaction centered around several major ideas. These included the importance of providing feedback to students, the methodologies for providing this feedback, the value of learning groups, the criticality of carefully constructed learner support materials, the explicit incorporation of interactivity in telecourse sessions, and the use of facilitators.

Feedback in response to student assignments and exams was viewed as being particularly important to instructors. However, many instructors expressed concerns about the degree to which they were successful in providing meaningful and timely feedback.

Several instructors spoke about the value of discussion or study groups. They believed these groups provided students with interaction that contributed significantly to their learning as well as their motivation for completing assignments and remaining in telecourses to their conclusion.

Many instructors were concerned about the quality of learner support materials which they made available to students. It was their belief that carefully conceived learner support materials contributed to the level and kind of interactivity which occurred during and after each of the telecourse sessions. In this regard, most instructors felt that interactivity among and between students as well as instructors needed to be planned. Also, it was the view of some instructors that the learning materials needed to engage students and activate their participation.

Many of the EDNET instructors talked about the importance of site facilitators and their role in delivering quality instruction. Site facilitators fulfilled several roles. They often served as discussion leaders, coaches or teaching assistants, proctors, ombudsmen for students, clarifiers of assignments, conduits to professors, tutors when appropriate, and critical observers of student performance. Moreover, these facilitators often compensated for the lack of interactivity during the actual telecourse sessions.

Administrators' Perceptions

Administrators identified several factors that were related to what they felt was effective and engaging television teaching. There was a great deal of consistency between the comments of the two groups of administrators. Very early in the interviews the importance of selecting excellent instructors for teaching on television was mentioned. Respondents felt that the quality of a telecourse was directly related to the effectiveness of the teacher. A willingness and commitment to teach on television was identified as a characteristic of effective instructors. Instructional skills and a comfortable, relaxed presence in front of the camera were also discussed as important instructor behaviors.

Both groups of administrators talked about the importance of some kind of training for television instructors. They felt that this training should address the adaptations needed for television teaching as well as provide instructors with several actual experiences of teaching in television studio or environment. In addition to training, the need for time to plan and develop television courses was discussed by the groups. Preparing a course for television takes a great deal of time and resources that instructors must be provided if quality programming is to occur.

Along with training and time, the importance of using a design team to develop television courses was discussed by study participants. Television instruction facilitates the use of multimedia in the presentation of information. Course instructors working with a team of experts are able to integrate a variety of media into the instructional format.

The need for interaction between the students and the instructor was identified as critical to the success of a television course. Students need to have some means to obtain feedback from their instructors, and instructors must have contact with their students. Several different kinds of interaction were described by administrators. In addition to live interactive television that one distance delivery system offered, respondents talked about the extensive use of the telephone as a means to support interaction. Students were able to call in questions during the telecourse and were also able to contact instructors at designated times following telecourse broadcasts. Often, just knowing that there was a way to contact instructors was enough for some students.

The importance of students interacting with each other was also discussed as a critical aspect of the learning experience. Cohort of students at distance learning sites often worked together on course assignments. Other instructors facilitated interaction through periodic study groups on campus.

Evaluating telecourses was a topic of discussion for one of the two administrative groups. Administrators acknowledged that not enough evaluation was being conducted. They felt that evaluation of television instruction should include both an assessment of student learning as well as an examination of various components of the television delivery systems.

The general acceptability of television instruction was discussed by the administrators. The fact that instruction was accessible to students who might not otherwise have access to learning was an important factor in relation to the acceptability of television instruction. Participants acknowledged that not everyone viewed learning on television as positive. They discussed their responsibility to disseminate information about the advantages and effectiveness of television instruction for expanding learning opportunities for diverse student audiences.

Conclusions and Recommendations

Quality television instruction is an amalgamation of a variety of important interactive elements: (1) skilled instructors, (2) meaningful and timely interactivity with instructors, facilitators, other students (learning teams, computer conferencing, etc.), learning materials and systems (student manuals, courseware, computer aided instruction, etc.), (3) effective collaboration between and among instructors, course designers, directors, etc., (4) well designed learning experiences, (5) careful integration of multimedia (video segments, films, graphics, etc.). (6) inclusion of appropriate television production values, (7) instruction comparable to quality, conventional instruction, (8) responsiveness to learner needs, and (9) positive student outcomes (cognitive, affective, & behavioral).

Other crucial elements which contribute to quality television instruction are as follows: (1) outcome-based training for instructors and support personnel, (2) adequate planning and preparation time for telecourse instructors, (3) ongoing, system-wide evaluation (qualitative and quantitative), and (4) provision of adequate incentives and resources for telecourse teachers.

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Educational Partnerships in Rural Settings

A Symposium Presented at the Annual Conference of the National Rural Education and Rural Special Education Association

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This symposium considers public school/university partnerships as vehicles for influencing change in rural education.

Western Carolina is a regional university in the southern Appalachian Mountains. A traditional mission of the university is to provide service to the school districts in our region. The major problems and issues of the rural schools within our primary service area are similar to those in rural schools in other parts of the country. Public school/university partnerships are being emphasized more as a means for addressing the problems and issues of American education. The use of this collaborative model in rural America requires an approach that recognizes and builds upon the nature of the social, educational, and economic bases within the rural community. This symposium seeks to capitalize upon the participants' unique rural perspectives and use these for identifying general ideas that can be employed in future collaborative efforts.

The collaborative efforts of faculty members of Western Carolina University's Department of Administration, Curriculum and Instruction will frame the discussion. Our presentation is aimed at educators from the pre-school through the university level who would like to explore the concept of public school/university collaboration for rural educational improvement. The overall purpose of the session is to identify ways to foster stronger ties between the public schools and universities of rural America. A corollary purpose is to examine the potential of a network of rural educators across the country who are involved in public school/university collaboration.

The research on collaboration, collegiality and change form the theoretical framework for this symposium. School reform efforts have been marginally successful, at best, when they have been based on the traditional structure that says change comes from the top down. The university has often played the role of "expert- authority," thereby alienating some public schools. Additionally, urban reform efforts have often been applied to rural settings without regard for the contexts of rural life. The voices of collaboration and collegiality as legitimate change processes have been calling in the wilderness, but those voices are starting to be heard. The potential benefits of this reconceptualization are great, but the obstacles must be carefully and clearly addressed.

The Department of Administration, Curriculum and Instruction at Western Carolina University uses the theme of rural education to guide teaching, research and service. We will use examples of our efforts to establish public school/university partnerships as a framework within which to address four general areas .

I. Existing public school/university problems and issues that can be addressed through collaborative efforts -

Rural schools have unique problems that can be overcome through collaboration. They exist in isolation. Collaboration facilitates meaningful discourse among professionals and support personnel from neighboring districts.

Rural schools have limited financial resources. Collaboration allows participants to share staff development, supplies and personnel.

Local politics are fierce in rural schools. It is easier to overcome local politics when several partners collaborate in decisions.

Teachers are isolated in small, rural schools. Teachers with similar positions and goals can be brought together in meaningful networks.

Rural schools also lack personnel and funds to conduct research. The university partner can assist in finding and securing outside funding.

II. Effective strategies in establishing strong collaborative links -

In addition to the creation of formal alliances, through which the university can provide supportive services, there are many less formal approaches. University students, particularly graduate students, are often "on the job." Their graduate programs can be enhanced through the use of real-life projects that are related to needs in their own schools and communities. Action research projects encourage constructive relations among teachers, students and university faculty. Informal networks such as the Office of the Institute for Democracy and Education have been shown to be more effective than the standard in-service or staff development models that have been around for so long. The university can also collaborate in program evaluation for school systems and conduct analysis of test data for public dissemination.

III. Obstacles to establishing strong collaborative links -

Breaking the barriers that have grown up around university-public school relations can be difficult. Past practices and traditions are the source of the most obstinant obstacles to collaboration. There is built-in resistance based on the often-accurate perception that universities `experts' like to "run the show." New approaches are often in opposition to required practices and policies. The groundwork involves establishing trust, privacy and confidentiality. University faculty essentially have to change their image. Program evaluation is often problematic as school systems are motivated by agency mandate or program funding as opposed to a determination of the "real worth" of programs.

IV. Benefits gained by the university, the public schools, and the rural community through collaboration and collegiality

Although there are many obstacles, and success will take a real commitment on the parts of both university and public school staff and faculty, there are many benefits to be gained. Shared resources, ideas and personnel opens up communication and interaction. Teachers will be recognized more as professionals by their own schools and communities as they engage in action research that leads to change. Collaboration provides a forum for teachers' voices and experiences to be aired, creates a feeling of empowerment and improves credibility in the eyes of community members. Students and teachers are able to practice skills that they have learned at the university and at the same time enhance opportunities to receive funding and raise standards.

Conclusion

Following our brief presentations, participants will be invited to share experiences, problems and solutions regarding collaborative, collegial efforts aimed at change. Our combined experiences will be synthesized into an overview of the dynamics, problems, benefits, and potential for collaborative efforts to improve education in rural America.

Tuskegee University
School of Education

Experiences in Establishing a Rural Professional Development School: First Efforts

Presenters:

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Daniel R. Vertrees
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EXPERIENCES IN ESTABLISHING A RURAL PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT SCHOOL: FIRST EFFORTS

The Professional Development School Concept

The term "professional development school" (PDS) first entered the education lexicon in 1986 in a Holmes Group publication *Tomorrow's Schools* (Holmes Group, 1986). *Tomorrow's Schools* was soon followed by *Tomorrow's Teachers* in 1990 (Holmes group, 1990). In 1993, *Tomorrow's Schools of Education* is scheduled for publication.

According to the Holmes Group (1986), the purpose of the PDS is to:

> *. . . bring practicing teachers and administrators together with university faculty in partnerships that improve teaching and learning on the part of their respective students . . . They would provide superior opportunities for teachers and administrators to influence the development of their profession, and for university faculty to increase the professional relevance of their work, through (1) mutual deliberation on problems with student learning, and their possible solutions: (2) shared teaching in the university and schools: (3) collaborative research on problems of educational practice: and (4) cooperative supervision of prospective teachers and administrators (p. 56).*

The history of school reform and public school - university collaboration reaches back at least 100 years when the Committee of Ten challenged universities to become more involved in improving public school education (Clark, 1988). In these earlier reform efforts, the university was expected to lead the university-public school collaboration efforts. In contemporary reform efforts, teachers and administrators are considered equal partners in working to change both public schools and teacher education.

What is a PDS? According to the Holmes Group, a PDS is:

> *A regular elementary, middle, or high school that works with a university to develop and demonstrate: fine learning programs for diverse students, and practical, thought-provoking preparation for novice teachers, and new understandings and professional responsibilities for experienced educators, and research projects that add to all educators' knowledge about how to make schools more productive.*

The Holmes Group identified six principles "for mutual efforts to design a professional development school" (Holmes Group Executive Summary, 1990):

1. Teach for understanding so students learn for a lifetime.
2. Organize the school and its classrooms as a community of learning.
3. Hold these ambitious learning goals for *everybody's* children.
4. Teach adults as well as children.
5. Make reflection and inquiry a central feature of the school.
6. Invent a new organizational structure for the school.

All over the United States, schools of education are scrambling to implement their version of the PDS. At the January 29-31, 1993, annual meeting in Washington, DC, attended by

Holmes Group members throughout the United States, it seemed clear that there is confusion regarding implementation of what everyone seems to agree is an admirable vision. Most notably: (1) Can schools of education work with a network of schools rather than only one school, and consider this a PDS? (2) Should schools of education choose to work with exemplary schools, with less exemplary schools, or with those which are obviously inferior? (3) How can faculty loads be adjusted to include the increased demands of PDS work on faculty time? (4) Should all faculty members in the school of education be involved in the PDS, or just a few? (5) Should all faculty research be conducted in the PDS? (6) Should private and parochial schools be candidates for a PDS? Finally, and perhaps most central to the success or failure of the PDS concept, (7) How can relationships between schools of education and public schools truly be on equal terms, given the many bureaucratic and cultural barriers to such a relationship?

Collaboration

Collaborative arrangements are subject to several criteria which, when circumvented, undermine the success of the program. In the case of the Professional Development School the criteria fall within three primary areas: 1) Involvement at all levels of the organizations; 2) trust development; and 3) the two way relationship between the university and the public school district.

Organizational Involvement

Each institution must have involvement from all levels. A PDS cannot survive at an effective level if the administrative arms of institutions merely "start a fire" and subsequently ignore the program. A detailed plan should provide the framework within which the program can be built. A general, conceptual agreement is not sufficient to sustain the day-to-day fluctuations of the program. The PDS should be firmly rooted in every level of the organization and not just established by administrative fiat.

After an initial agreement in principle, by the board of education and the university administration, comprehensive planning is necessary, by a team consisting of the superintendent of the school district, the dean of the school of education, the university professors, and the classroom teachers involved. Thorough understanding of the PDS concept and commitment to the program must be the beginning platform for the PDS to work well. If there is any breach in the initial understanding and commitment to the PDS the program will be fraught with obstacles.

Trust

One of the largest obstacles to overcome in the PDS operation is that of trust. School district teachers must not feel that the university is coming in to "show them how it's done" or in other ways indicate that the public school teachers are the only ones who need help. Conversely, public school teachers should not project an attitude that university professors are theoretical beings only, with no understanding of how things happen in the "real world." Only through ongoing and truthful dialogue with all members of the PDS team can real trust be established.

Collaborative position

Who takes the first steps? A real barrier to future trust and collaboration occurs in the "anointing" of a public school by the university. Such an action works against the PDS concept by conveying university arrogance, and by isolating the selected school from other schools within the district. There may be a perception of unfair advantage for the appointed school as no longer part of the district. If the designated school is identified in an arbitrary way, without the involvement and collaboration of the teaching staff, the PDS will be a setting for dissention, distrust, and will be doomed to failure.

When a university approaches a school district to establish a PDS, or when the school district approaches the university, it is wise to plan the PDS development phases well in advance of the beginning date. To test the possibility of the project the university and public schools should seek answers to the following questions:

1) Is the existing relationship with the public school generally positive or suspicious?

2) Do the school board and the university administration agree, in principle, to the PDS concept and wish to explore the relationship?

3) Is there sufficient willingness on the part of school district administration, staff, and teaching force to examine their practices in an effort to find the optimum teaching environment?

4) Is there sufficient willingness on the part of the university to provide opportunities for inservice, collaborative research assistance, administrative time, and will the university participants take a truly collaborative stance rather than a patronizing stance with the public school.

5) Are both parties willing to contribute necessary resources, time, and support to allow the project the possibility of success?

If the answer to any of the above is no, or even maybe, then the PDS project should be reconsidered.

The PDS Sites

Tuskegee University (TU) School of Education, Tuskegee Public Elementary School and South Macon Schoolbegan their collaboration in 1991. Tuskegee University is set in the heart of rural Macon County, AL and is considered one of the poorest counties in the nation, according to the 1990 census. Over 93% of the students in Macon County are African-American, 79% of whom receive either free or reduced school lunches. South Macon School is located 15 miles from Tuskegee University campus, and serves grades K-8. The school draws its enrollment from 14 surrounding rural communities and serves a population of 370 students. In 1992, students at South Macon scored between the 35th and 48th percentile nationally (depending upon grade level) in reading as measured by the Stanford Achievement Test. South Macon School was used as the PDS for the elementary and early childhood programs.

The second PDS school is Tuskegee Public Elementary School, a K-6 school located approximately one mile from the TU campus. This school was chosen as the special education PDS for two reasons: (1) easy access to the school from campus; (2) access to severely involved students; and (3) professional rapport with the school personnel developed over many years.

First year successes and failures

In the summer of 1990, members of the Macon County Board of Education and faculty from Tuskegee University and South Macon School met on the campus of Tuskegee University to lay the foundations of the PDS concept. Tuskegee University was a new member of the Holmes Group and received seed money to establish the PDS concept in a rural setting. At this meeting the Dean of the School of Education proposed that we enter into a cooperative agreement with Tuskegee Public Elementary School and South Macon School, which would serve as the primary PDS sites for Tuskegee University.

TU faculty and student involvement at South Macon began first semester, 1992, by assigning pre-service teachers for the laboratory assignments connected to the methodology courses. An initial obstacle to this new venture was the distance between South Macon School and the university. This problem was solved by using the university van for transportation. Invoking the concept of the "movable school", used by Tuskegee University founder Booker T. Washington, students traveled to and from the clinical site daily. Students used the transportation time to discuss activities for the day, and to reflect on the day's activities.

Initial reaction to the university faculty at South Macon was what we feared: skepticism, distancing, distrust. We were outsiders with contradictory views of what education should be. Not only were the three TU faculty members who participated weekly from the "ivory tower", but two of the faculty members were caucasian and the third was African. There are few caucasians or Africans at South Macon. Initially, the university faculty spent their time observing, occasionally conducting activities, and building rapport with the South Macon faculty.

One of the major successes of the South Macon PDS has been the positive reaction by university students. Enthusiastic pre-service teachers working with "real" children in "real" schools have invigorated the elementary and early childhood programs. They have infused a new idealism and energy into the South Macon PDS and have developed a deeper understanding of teaching and learning.

Another outcome of this new relationship is the collaboration of TU faculty and South Macon teachers in the seeking outside funding for educational grants. One such project was funded in October, 1992, and involves helping parents work with their children through the use of science box kits.

The PDS at Tuskegee Public Elementary School, our second site, evolved more smoothly than the South Macon PDS. There is a long standing relationship between Tuskegee Public and Tuskegee University's special education program. Tuskegee University has for several years used Tuskegee Public as a clinical site. The teacher for the TMR class was a graduate of our program, and faculty from Tuskegee University have volunteered their time to help teach the TMR class. The principal is extremely cooperative in collaborative efforts, and our faculty, classes, and students are always welcomed in the classrooms. Several TU classes are co-taught by universuty and public school personnel with time split between the University classroom and the TMR classroom. After the successes we have experienced with the TMR class, we are in the process of expanding this cooperative effort to the MLH classes.

Lessons Learned

Several lessons were learned in the three years we have worked toward a PDS. Some of the lessons learned are:

1. For a PDS to work well, every person involved must buy into the concept. The superintendent, the dean, university faculty, and the classroom teachers must be actively involved from the beginning.
2. Real trust and rapport must be developed between the university faculty and the classroom teachers. There must be active collaboration between the two groups, acting as a team, before any change can take place.
3. The University should reject the role of a top-down authority in the process. The university must not "anoint" a PDS. Choosing to become a PDS must be a decision made as collaboratively as possible with the school district, administration, individual teachers and the university.
4. There must be adequate lead-in time before the project develops. Careful planning with the selected school and participating teachers will help prevent many problems.
5. Start small. Do not try to work collaboratively with the entire school. Rather adopt one class and show that the PDS idea has merit on a small scale. If the idea begins on too grandiose a scale, the concept may fail.
6. Do not make promises that are undeliverable or unrealistic just to sell the concept. Be honest, open, and realistic when setting mutual goals.
7. Recognize that educational reform includes teacher education - not just public schools. Schools of education must honestly seek criticism from public school teachers and other school personnel.

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Planning and Implementing a Social Skills Instructional Program within a Rural Educational System Serving Adolescents with Behavior Disorders

Students labeled emotionally/behaviorally disordered (EBD) are defined primarily by their inability to interact in socially acceptable ways. Studies have indicated that (Meadows, Neel, Parker, & Timo, 1991): a) students with behavior disorders lack appropriate social skills; b) many students with behavior problems are poorly accepted by peers; and c) many students with behavior disorders are rated by their teachers as having inadequate social skills. Students with disabilities have been found to interact less frequently and in more negative ways than their peers which decreases effective mainstream efforts or successful integration for already mainstreamed students (McGinnis & Goldstein, (1984). Students with social skill deficits are more likely to have problems as children and as adults and are often rejected and neglected by their peers (Morgan & Jensen, 1988). McGinnis and Goldstein (1984) indicated three reasons why children fail to respond appropriately in social situations: 1) the child may not know what the appropriate behavior is; 2) the child may have the knowledge, but may lack the practice; or 3) the child's emotional responses may inhibit performance of the desirable behavior.

Social skills deficits in students with behavior disorders is one of the most critical deterrents to social acceptance. These deficits set students apart by their lack of social competence. Social skills training has been found to be effective in improving peer-to-peer interaction skills and increasing social acceptance. Social skills have an important relationship in all aspects of student's lives: educational, social, and employment (Meadows, et al., 1991). The development of social behavior competencies by children with behavior disorders and other disabilities is viewed as a prerequisite for success in regular classroom settings

(Gresham, 1982; Gresham, 1983) and very often may not be addressed prior to integration or mainstreaming efforts by the school system and other professionals.

For students labelled emotionally or behaviorally disordered (EBD) the curriculum emphasis is often on behavioral management (Knitzer, Steinberg, & Fleisch, 1990). The dominant curriculum is about controlling the behaviors of the children and maintaining silence in the classroom, not teaching children how better to manage their anger, sadness or impulses (Nichols, 1992). The use of power is often effective at intimidating students who need control least and is seldom effective with students whose behavior is most unproductive (Jones & Jones, 1990).

Theoretically, most social skills curricula focus on problem-solving. The intent of the developers is to engage the students in active inquiry. Knitzer, Steinberg, & Fleisch (1990) report it is unclear that teachers are being given the support and skills necessary to employ social skills curricula effectively within EBD classrooms. Nichols (1992) notes this new kind of service delivery to students may not coincide with teachers current compentencies and previous training. Shortages of specially trained teachers, frequent burnout, and high turnover rates exacerbate the existing problems associated with curricula limitations in programs serving EBD students. Although a national dilemma, rural school systems reflect a unique vulnerability to these problems. Many rural school systems have not been able to recruit or afford full time specialists and suffer an acute special education staffing deficiency (Helge, 1981). The West Virginia Department of Education reports a persistent and chronic shortage of trained and certified teachers of students with behavioral disorders. Strategies specific to the unique needs of rural educators serving students experiencing social skill deficits within the confines of limited support services and a shortage of trained teachers are necessary. There exists a need for support with sensitivity towards teacher isolation concerns in attempts to improve programming for students identified as EBD.

This presentation focuses on practical, innovative strategies for implementing a social skills program while providing rural educators with professional development opportunities. An in-service training component focusing on instructional strategies as well as packaged curricula evaluation was conducted. Participants included teachers (EBD), paraprofessionals, building and district administrators from three schools in a rural West Virginia school district. The inservice training topics consisted of: 1) implications regarding definitions of social competence; 2) range of skills encompassed in a social skills curriculum; 3) effective instructional techniques; 4) practical strategies for incorporating social skills into pre-existing school schedules; 5) opportunities to incorporate incidental teaching of social skills; 6) generalization concerns, and 7) evaluation/examination of packaged social skill curricula. A positive approach was emphasized during the in-service training. The importance of identifying "fair-pair" appropriate incompatible matches to currently identified problem behaviors was the main objective of the in-service training. Thus a skills deficit model reflecting proactive strategies emphasizing reinforcement and skill building was the focus rather than a traditional reactive behavior management system emphasizing punishment and behavior reduction. An additional outcome of the in-service training was the selection of teacher preferred packaged curricula.

Teachers and behavioral consultants then conducted social skill assessments on the participating student populations. Assessment results identified students' social skill deficits. These deficits were incorporated into IEP objectives. The class composite of skill deficits was utilized to prioritize and plan lessons, and identify student role models (student(s) skilled in target social skill).

Classroom management concerns were addressed by surveying students in order to identify their preferred reinforcement choices (edibles, concrete reinforcers, free time, competitive approval, social approval, teacher approval). Rules for class participation were simplified using the **SLANT** acronym (**S**it up, **L**ean forward towards the speaker, **A**ct interested, **N**od, **T**rack the speaker). **SLANT** tokens were provided during group instruction. Group contingencies were established based on the group consensus of predicted goals for accumulating tokens. Therefore, schedules of reinforcement were group initiated.

Lesson plans were written by the behavior consultants and site teachers. Lesson plan components included: 1) identification of skill deficit; 2) lesson objectives; 3) teaching procedures; and 4) generalization plans. Social skill instruction was scheduled at each of the three sites and conducted twice weekly. Initially the behavior consultants taught the lessons affording the site teacher an opportunity to observe instructional strategies. A variety of instructional techniques included formulating skill steps, role play, assessing/amending problematic scenerios, computer simulation, and decision -making models. A feedback component was included to facilitate communication between the consultants and the teachers regarding the modeled instructional session. Collaborative planning between the teachers and consultants was imperative in facilitating generalization opportunities for the students. Promoting practice of the target social skill in the natural setting was facilitated through the use of student contracts, practice assignments, and encouraging teacher prompts/cues.

The consultants' teaching roles gradually faded as team teaching opportunities evolved and teachers assumed primary instructional roles. Although no longer in the primary role of social skill instructor delivering direct services to students, the consultants continued to offer technical assistance to the pilot site teachers.

Planning and implementing a social skills instructional program within a rural education system serving adolescents with emotional and behavior disorders requires recognition of the critical shortage of trained teachers, these teachers' feelings of isolation, and the limitations of existing EBD programming. Teacher training and support through technical assistance is necessary in order to provide a shift from programs relying on heavy external control towards programs that help students gain self control. Admirable EBD programming consists of designing meaningful, rewarding activities through which students will learn ways to fit into their real worlds with less stress, unhappiness, and conflict (Knitzer, Steinberg, Fleisch, 1990). This project outlines an approach to provide practicing rural educators with strategies to enhance EBD programs through social skills instruction.

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IMPLEMENTING TWO-WAY INTERACTIVE VIDEO IN RURAL, SMALL SCHOOLS

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study is to describe how citizens implement two-way interactive video in rural, small schools and communities. Intended audiences are educators committed to rural, small schools; state departments of education; rural citizenry; educational organizations with a rural focus; teachers' organizations; and rural school administrator groups. The results of these descriptions:

(1) detail procedures for implementing two-way interactive video in schools in rural, small communities;
(2) provide guidelines and suggestions for implementation.

RURAL FOCUS

The role of rural schools is beginning to extend well beyond the basic education of a community's youth. There is a growing trend for rural schools to serve as a focal point and resource for the rural community at large. Rural schools often function as the local clearinghouse for the dissemination of information, health care, counseling, and community support services. Thus, the closing of rural schools has frequently spelled the doom of surrounding communities. Concerned, enlightened rural citizens have recognized that their schools must survive to insure the survival of the rural community, as well as its unique culture, and have sought ways in which to keep rural schools alive and communities intact.

Rural leaders have begun to consider the application of new technologies, particularly telecommunications, to rural education and community services, which they envision as a means to secure the continuing viability of the rural lifestyle. The recent development and rapid growth of telecommunications technologies have been instrumental in making educational opportunities and social services available to rural communities. Potential services are medical and EMS training; medical diagnoses and treatment regime; community planning and networking; professional training for firefighters, policemen, lawyers, and citizens interested in improving their professional status. As new technologies continue a near exponential evolution and costs continue to decline, hi-tech accessibility to rural schools and attendant communities, can be expected to increase dramatically.

While the promise of expanding course offerings through telecommunicated classes may further neutralize arguments for consolidation of rural districts, this technology will also broaden opportunities for sharing and cooperating with other rural districts in partial reorganizational arrangements. Rural districts, making use of new technologies, will be involved, by the very nature of the medium, in cooperating with other districts or organizations.

New telecommunications technologies, now available to the rural community, can offer a unique opportunity to reshape the educational environment, as well as have impact on the social, communication, political, economic, and recreational aspects of rural life.

RESEARCH DESIGN

This study of the process of implementing two-way interactive video in rural, small schools utilized a descriptive multiple case study design (Yin, 1984). The case unit was the two-way interactive video projects, which link participating schools within a given region. Distance between schools can be as far as 200 miles.

Case study sites

In order to focus on varying phases of the implementation process, one of the projects selected was in the early phase of development, one was in the intermediate stage, while three had been on-line for varying periods of time. In addition to temporal distinctions, the three relatively mature projects were chosen because each has unique characteristics that inform upon the two-way interactive video process. These projects, specifically the mature projects, are among the few in operation throughout the United States, and have been visited by many other educational entities interested in considering this technology.

All schools in the project were considered to be at risk because they were not able to provide education comparable to larger and less isolated schools. Sites were selected from the southwestern states of Texas, Oklahoma, and New Mexico, states that were hit hard by economic setbacks in the oil and agricultural industries. Sites had little, if any governmental funding at national, state or local level for implementation of innovative technologies. Selected projects were conceived and funded (at least in the pilot phase) from within the community, primarily from non-governmental sources.

The partnership between local schools and indigenous, private businesses provides a unique perspective in terms of the implementation of innovative technologies in education. These "grass roots" initiatives contrast markedly with projects in Wisconsin, Minnesota, Kansas, Iowa, and Mississippi that received funding almost exclusively from public sources such as tax bonds, state departments of education, and district funding.

Data collection

Data sources for each case study included:

(1) face-to-face interviews during site visits; many interviewees were recorded on video and/or audio tape
(2) observations and video recording of interactive video classes during site visits;
(3) community, school, telcom, and government documents;
(4) community, school, telcom, and government records.

Documents include newspaper articles, memos, letters. Records include minutes of meetings or financial reports.

Interviews were conducted with such individuals as superintendents, principals, school board members, telcom liaison representatives, interactive video coordinators, parents, teachers, and learners who have made use of the technology for learning. Participants were selected through a process of snowball sampling (Patton, 1990) by which interviewees nominate others to be interviewed. To help ensure that multiple viewpoints are represented, the principle of maximum variation sampling was observed in selecting from among individuals nominated (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

Although formal interviews were conducted on-site with key individuals, additional data was collected through informal discussions and conversations with other community members, and follow-up interviews were conducted by phone.

Data was collected by four investigators located in Austin, Texas, during a minimum of two site visits of from two to three days each. In light of the distance between the research center and the sites, as well as the number of sites, additional site visits were impractical. However, numerous phone interviews were made before and after site visits.

Data Analysis

Each site's development occurred both in ways unique to a specific location and in common with the other locations. Although all projects began by local initiative, federal and state participation emerged (to varying degrees) during the course of site development, allowing for further description and clustering of variables. Emergent commonalties have been synthesized and presented in the findings, as well as in an edited videotape.

THE TECHNOLOGY

The development of two-way interactive networks, permitting the transmission of full motion video with simultaneous audio for educational improvement in the teaching of students in rural, school districts is emerging as a viable option of instruction for rural schools.

Two-way interactive video and audio is essentially a networking of media production points or classrooms that have the capability to transmit and receive audio and video from other classrooms similarly equipped. This interaction is particularly relevant to rural, small schools where populations are typically sparse, and human resources are severely limited.

Two-way interactive full motion video and audio has specific characteristics that make it attractive and feasible for rural, at-risk school populations.

1. *Immediacy*. In contrast to multipoint video which is typically disseminated by satellite or videotape and originates from a distant learning authority with severely limited reciprocity, two-way video and audio allows constant interaction between students and teachers who are typically located in the same or a nearby community. This immediacy of feedback allows students who have limited attention spans to maintain active contact.
2. *Relevancy*. Two-way tends to work best with a clustering of several small student populations with teachers who may or may not be located in targeted classrooms. Such configuration allows teaching to be specially designed to the needs of students involved. A typical configuration might be two or three pre-algebra classes with teachers linked with a master teacher originating from a university or community college. Another configuration could be three separate student populations with a teacher in each classroom serving as the master teacher in her/his particular area of expertise.

3. *Stimulating Learning Environment.* Two-way video enables the teacher to present a variety of perspectives and images via multiple cameras from different angles and variable fields of view, videotape, and computer display. Images and sound are close in quality to those found on professionally produced, commercial television. Such credible imagery, with the additional stimulation of multiple visual and aural fields, complemented with concurrent student feedback, has the potential to engage students, including students with learning disabilities, in ways unique to current classroom methodology.
4. *Affordable Cost.* With dramatic advances in media technology, and use of consumer oriented video and audio production equipment, ISD's can equip classrooms (media centers) with a moderate amount of cost.
5. *Telcom Participation.* There are increasing incentives in the form of grants, profit opportunities, public relations and deregulation to motivate telcoms, particularly small, regional telcoms serving rural populations, to be major participants in making two-way video available in schools.
6. *Access to Information.* Once linked with two-way video, a classroom has the potential to receive any other mediated information available within the network. Information from videos, laser discs, satellite feeds, computer networks can all be easily transferred from one classroom to another.
7. *School/Community Production Center.* Originally, television was viewed as merely a means to chronicle live news events. It has become much more. So too, does the electronic classroom have the potential to exceed the expectations of its original intent. In essence, each classroom equipped with two-way video becomes a fully functioning television studio, complete with a capacity for a studio audience, that can either go live to other schools and/or be recorded for videotape distribution. And once a two-way video system is in place, linkage into distribution modes such as community cable systems becomes relatively affordable, creating the potential for shared community meetings, guest lecturers for the school/community, adult education, live school news production, dramatic presentations and much more.

Typical configuration

The typical classroom is equipped with three video cameras, an overhead that can display teacher and student work, as well as serve as an electronic chalk board, a camera to capture the teacher (when present), and a camera to capture the class.

All cameras can be manipulated to cover varying fields of view. The teacher or student has the ability to switch from one camera to the other, via a switching board generally located at the teacher's work station which also houses other multimedia equipment.

Two banks of three to five monitors are situated to provide both students and the teacher visual access to other classrooms in the cluster as well as the electronic chalk board. Both banks of monitors display the same images. One monitor shows the teacher or the image from the overhead camera. The other monitors displays the students at remote sites. The difference between the teaching classroom and the remote classrooms is that the students in the teaching classroom see the teacher both on video and live.

Audio is captured by placement of multiple microphones throughout the classroom. The teacher has an attached microphone (lavaliere) to capture her voice while interacting with students.

All video cabling within the classroom and school is coaxial, carrying an analog signal. Transmission between the sites is digital via fiber optic cable. The video and audio signals generated by classroom cameras and microphones are routed to a control panel and split, one set of signals routed to the originating classroom and the other converted to digital information for transmission to other classrooms via fiber optic cable.

Each class is equipped with a fax to distribute materials and assignments. Frequently, a teacher or staff member lives in a neighboring community and transports materials to a school when returning home or coming to school.

Transmission of video and audio signals is achieved by the digital conversion of conventional analog information via video codec (coder/decoder unit) which passes the digitized signals at 45 megabits/second (DS-3) to a fiber multiplex terminal (FMT-150) which then combines the digitized signals and transmits over one fiber optic pair, to other locations, permitting full-motion, multiple site (continuous presence) video, with simultaneous voice and computer data signals among networked sites. During transmission, all signals remain digital, which ensures integrity, regardless of distance or number of times multiplexed.

Until recently, the costs of implementing two-way video have precluded diffusion on a large scale. However, new policy incentives, the dramatic increase in telecommunications innovation, concurrent with decreasing technology costs, the aggressive expansion of fiber optic telcom lines, and collaborative efforts between private industry and progressive educational entities have made it possible for districts with extremely limited resources to plan and implement an effective two-way electronic education environment.

THE STUDY

This study is important in that it documents the successful implementation of a technology that can potentially overcome the curricular and faculty limitations that put isolated small rural schools at-risk. The stories told by educators and other citizens in these communities can provide a powerful model and numerous suggestions for citizens of similar communities in implementing their own systems.

Research report

The research report was written to inform an audience of citizens and educational professionals interested in implementing interactive two-way video systems in their own schools. Before writing, an outline was developed to include the following components: purpose of the study; methodology, presentation of the data; validation and verification of the findings; and conclusions and recommendations (Patton, 1980).

Data are presented in three parts:
(1) A description of the technology with some technical data provided
(2) The story of each site's efforts to implement the technology;
(3) A comparison of the similarities and differences among the sites on issues salient to the intended audience.

Included in the presentation of data are:
(1) A thorough description of the setting for each case;
(2) A description of the key elements studied in-depth both case by case and comparatively;
(3) A discussion of the "lessons to be learned" from the study (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

In composing the report, a preference has been observed for writing thick description rather than highly abstract and inferential analysis by the researcher. An attempt has been made to allow the study participants to tell their own story as much as possible (Denzin, 1989).

The Projects

This study has tracked five two-way full motion video and audio projects in Oklahoma, New Mexico and Texas, that are in varying stages of development during an eight month period. In order to alleviate redundancies the description of the first study will be much more detailed than subsequent ones. Only events unique to a specific project will be dealt with in detail and commonalties will be abbreviated.

1. **The Oklahoma Panhandle Shar-Ed Video Network** is the most mature network in the study, having come on line at the beginning of the 1988-89 school year with four schools in one county being linked. Although the current configuration of the Shar-Ed Network involves 13 schools across a three county area, the original initiative involved only the four schools in Beaver County, the eastern most county in the Panhandle. Initiatives for Beaver County began in 1985 in response to funding cutbacks as a result of declining tax revenues, as well as state mandates to provide additional courses. Further, the Oklahoma College Board came out with minimum competencies for six subject areas that required additional courses for college bound students. County schools were advised by the Dean of the Department of Education at Oklahoma State University (OSU) that their college bound students were not fully prepared for higher education.

   In response, Beaver High School developed an innovative School Before School Program where college bound students would come to school an hour before regular classes began and concentrate on college preparatory classes. A curriculum was developed and classes taught in conjunction with OSU faculty. The program became very successful and gained national recognition as one of fifteen schools cited throughout the nation as being an exemplary school. Although this innovative program did not use new technologies, it gave local educators the confidence and community support to try other educational innovations.

   Beaver High began taking foreign language as well as other courses from OSU via satellite. While county students tested well and the initiative was successful; area educators felt that inability of students to directly interact with teachers didn't provide the best learning environment possible. There were good foreign language teachers in the county, and in the other five areas of competencies, but not enough teachers for all four schools. Ideally, the country would share teachers within the county, thus providing college preparatory courses tailored to the specific needs of their students. County superintendents attended a demonstration in rural, western Wisconsin relating to interactive television distributed via microwave. Two of the four superintendents were impressed by the interactive nature of the system and students' ability accept the technology and learn from it. Their first selling job was convincing the other two superintendents to join the quest. The result was the formation of the Beaver County Interactive TV Cooperative.

Upon returning from Wisconsin, county superintendents reasoned that "...if they can do it, why can't we?" and began the long odyssey of getting support and funding for the implementation of two-way interactive video in their county. Local support for the program was not difficult since the county's schools had already gained considerable credibility from the School Before School and the satellite program. The attitude of the community can best be summed up by a caveat issued to one school board member: "Wiley, you go ahead with this thing. Just make sure you do it right. I don't want to see egg on your face." However, support for the program didn't extend to financial contribution. Budgets were already stretched tight.

The superintendents started knocking on doors. Some doors opened and many didn't. Fiber optic cable was beginning to be installed by phone companies and was being heralded as a revolution in the field of communications. A member on one of the county's ISD's was also a board member of the Panhandle Telephone Cooperative Inc. (PTCI), a rural coop that provides telephone service to the Panhandle and surrounding areas. He suggested approaching the PTCI for the following reasons:
(a) Although the PTCI was relatively small, it was progressive and had been installing fiber optic cable in the area, as well as upgrading many of its other services.
(b) Being a federally mandated cooperative, it is required to reinvest profits back into the community or to issue capital credit funds to customer-members. Supplying the schools with interactive television made sense, because fiber optic lines necessary could be used to carry signals other than those necessary to link the schools.
(c) The PTCI had a vested interest in the survival of the schools because it believed that the school was essential to the survival of the community, and without the community their subscriber base would dissipate.
(d) Use of the technology allowed the PTCI to work with a cutting edge technology that would place them in a strategic position when broader applications of the technology were sought.
(e) It was good public relations both within the community and without.
(f) PTCI employees and board members were a part of the community with family members attending local schools.

The relationship between the Beaver County Educators and PTCI proved to be fruitful. Indeed, this liaison between county ISD's and the small, rural telephone company proved to be a model for all projects described herein. Small telcos have been much more responsive to the needs of their communities than larger telcos, and generally when small telcos have attempted to extend an educational network into areas controlled by larger companies, they have had little cooperation or success.

Meetings ensued and an accord was reached. PTCI, having a three county service area, wanted to provide the same educational opportunity to the schools in Texas and Cimarron counties that wished to participate. But for the first phase, PTCI would connect the four schools in Beaver County. Negotiations resulted in PTCI linking the four schools with 52 miles of fiber optic cable, providing maintenance, transmitting equipment, and transmission access. The Beaver County ITV Cooperative through its accumulation of grant moneys would partially reimburse PTCI over a five year period at the rate of $45,000 a year and would cover the costs of facilitating media labs with cameras, TV monitors, microphones, etc. in the four schools, costing about $20,000 per lab. Currently, each school in the network is paying PTCI $11,000 a year for maintenance and transmission access.

In addition to reaching an accord with PTCI, Beaver schools had to reach an accord among themselves in terms of aligning schedules. This turned out to be one of the more difficult obstacles to overcome. In order for schedules to match precisely, school days had to begin and end at the same time. Class periods had to be coordinated. Holidays had to be the same. This "electronic consolidation" ran counter to the independent nature of the Panhandle superintendents. However, with a lot of hair pulling, concessions, and cajoling a unified schedule was hammered out that would allow courses to be taught over the interactive system.

Another obstacle encountered was a state regulation requiring a certified teacher to be physically present in every classroom. The model for Beaver County and subsequent expansion was to have one teacher for all four sites. There was some skepticism within in the community as well regarding control of students in satellite classes and cheating. State authorities and the community were ultimately satisfied by the requirement that each student and his parent participating in the interactive classes had to sign a contract stating that the student must comport himself properly, and must maintain satisfactory academic progress. If not, the student would be removed from the class. Also, classrooms were monitored by the principal or superintendent in each school via an office television that was connected to the system. Surprisingly few disciplinary problems have been reported since the inception of the program.

Courses began being exchanged over the Beaver County two-way ITV network in the fall of 1988. Classes offered were advanced placement English, Spanish, art, and accounting with all classes originating from different schools. Few glitches were encountered. PTCI's installation of the complex system functioned well from the onset. Teachers selected were among the best in the county and were enthusiastic about the possibilities teaching over the network and embraced the technology. Other teachers expressed strong reservations, fearing that the sharing of teachers might phase out teaching positions. Training was minimal, generally limited to familiarizing the teacher how equipment operation. Very little information about teaching on this new technology was available. Teachers who subsequently gained experience on this network have helped train and advise educators implementing other networks.

During the 1990-91 school year three schools in Texas county, Beaver's western neighbor, were added to the network to form a second cluster of schools. The cost to connect to the network was $17,000. These schools shared their own classes, including Advanced Placement English, Spanish, college level general Psychology, and advanced math. At this time there was no sharing between clusters.

Beginning in January, 1991, the network offered its first course from an institution of higher learning, a Northwestern Oklahoma State University graduate class in education administration. The class was transmitted from a site in Texas county and available in both Beaver and Texas counties.

Also, beginning in January, 1991, Region 5 Rural Technical Assistance Center out of Denver, Colorado, undertook a three month study to explore the feasibility of using distance education as a means for providing Chapter I remedial courses to eligible children. Math instruction was provided to third and fourth grade students via interactive television with one teacher at the sending site and three facilitators at the remote sites. Four network schools in Texas and Beaver county were selected for the first phase of the study. The second phase selected four sites in southeast Kansas and took place in the summer of 1991. This study was of particular interest because distance education has been has traditionally been used for college students and self-motivated high school students.

Authors of the study made the following observations:

- Chapter 1 math instruction for third and fourth grade students can be effectively delivered via two-way interactive video.
- Classes were at least as effective as a traditional instruction delivery system in producing student achievement.
- Interactive television was successful in actively engaging the students for the entire program.
- When the technology is already in place Chapter 1 delivery is no more expensive than the cost of a traditional Chapter 1 program.
- Advantages of using two-way interactive video include the sharing of human and material resources, increased teacher support through networking, visual clarity of objects, and staff development through modeling.
- Issues that could be problematic are the commitment of time and money, the need for specific teleteaching training, the difficulty of establishing a schedule, the possible limitations of the classroom environment, and the differences in classroom management.
- Teleteachers, facilitators, superintendents, and parents responded positively to the distance education project in surveys and interviews.

During the 1991-92 school year two more schools were added to Texas county making a total of five in that cluster. Panhandle State University, located in Texas county, came on line in the summer of 1991. The university began offering college courses in English, history, economics, sociology, and government to qualifying high school students (seniors with a 3.0 or better grade point average). These courses were dual enrollment, meaning that passing students would receive college and high school credit at the same time. These courses are available in all three counties. However, Beaver county has had difficulty in participating because of a full network schedule.

Three schools were added in Cimarron county, just west of Texas county, to form a third cluster. This cluster offers a nearly full schedule via the network including mechanical drawing, trig/calculus, AP English, Spanish, and speech from within the cluster; art from the Texas county cluster; and economics, a dual enrollment course from Panhandle State University.

By the 1992-93 school year, all three planned phases of the network had been completed. Area schools concentrated on upgrading teaching of existing courses. There has been somewhat more sharing of courses among clusters, but essentially school networking patterns stabilized. Community access was expanded in the form of non-credit courses, paraprofessional training, and inter-community meeting opportunities.

Future plans for the network possibly include:
- connecting with a southwestern Kansas interactive TV network, giving them access to Fort Hayes State University which has a strong graduate program;
- connecting with Oklahoma State University and/or Oklahoma University;
- offering foreign language awareness courses at the elementary level;
- offering vo-tech courses in Cimarron county;
- providing computer data transmission, including student access to Internet, and training from Panhandle State University;
- expanded community participation.

The New Mexico Eastern Plains Interactive TV Cooperative came on line for the 1990-91 school year. Although by inspired the Oklahoma Panhandle Shar-Ed Network, it evolved quite differently. The vision and subsequent implementation, rather than originating from educators, came from the manager and CEO, and the board members of the Eastern New Mexico Rural (ENMR) Telephone cooperative. That original vision included linking twenty schools together, both in New Mexico and in west Texas; access to medical training and technical support from the Lubbock Health Sciences Center; onsite training to outlying industries; and university courses and professional training for community members. ENMR's position was one of pragmatism. It was convinced that the viability of the rural school was essential to the survival of the surrounding population which was ENMR's subscription base.

ENMR approached schools that were already accessible by fiber optic and offered them the opportunity to participate in a pilot project whereby ENMR would assume all costs for setting up the network including installation of production gear for studio classrooms. ENMR had sought support from the state legislature, but was not successful. The only governmental support available was a no-interest loan from the Rural Electrification Administration (REA). Rather than wait for additional moneys to be allocated, ENMR decided to establish a successful program, then petition the state legislature for reimbursement. The obligation of the schools would be to coordinate schedules and classes so that the system could be effectively used.

From the inception, two clusters were conceived, one linking schools that had classes five days a week, and one that held classes on four days. Three five-day schools, spanning a distance of nearly 200 miles, shared courses in art and Spanish. This paucity of course offerings has proven to be problematic.

The second cluster, with only two four-day schools participating, shared art, physics, geometry, Spanish and algebra. A major problem occurred with one school closed on Friday and the other closed on Monday. The schools could not agree to be closed on the same day, so each had automated taping facilities that recorded classes transmitted on the day they were closed. Although both clusters had less than an ideal beginning, the project was deemed successful and attracted a lot of attention.

The 1991-92 school year witnessed the consolidation of one cluster and the weakening of the other. The five-day cluster lost one of its schools which converted to a four-day week and joined the other cluster, leaving only two schools at the extreme ends of the network, and only one shared class between them. The four-day cluster, in addition to the defection mentioned above, added another school, resulting in a total membership of five. All schools within the cluster agreed to a Monday-Thursday week, eliminating the necessity of students having to attend one day of taped classes. Each school supplied one course, with a network schedule including physics, algebra, Spanish, southwestern literature, and art appreciation.

A local community college, Clovis Community College, also joined the network this school year. The college was able to offer a number of dual enrollment courses to qualifying high school students, including psychology, sociology, algebra, English, Spanish, and art appreciation. These courses were particularly attractive to college-bound students, typically 40-60% of the school population, because there was no cost to the students with books provided. Students have been able accumulate as many as fifteen hours of college credit prior to graduating from high school.

For the 1992-93 school year a third and highly unique cluster was formed involving a high school and a remote elementary school in the same district some 45 miles away. Previously, students graduating from the elementary school had to travel more than 100 miles a day to attend the ninth grade at the high school. That translated into more than 18,000 miles a year per student. Prior to leaving for the high school, most students, living in rural areas, also had to bus to the elementary school, further increasing travel time.

The president of the school board happened to be the local manager for the regional ENMR office in that area, as well as a graduate of the distant elementary school. He had assisted in the installation of media labs in other schools on the network, and was a strong advocate of technology in education. His first efforts to convince the ISD superintendent to install a remote ninth grade classroom wasn't well received. Other distance learning programs, courses via satellite, had not been successful in the area, and had been costly. However, after some persuasion, and the visiting of two-way interactive sites in operation, the ISD decided to implement the program.

This initiative differs from others in the network since the vision came from local inhabitants, rather than the manager and CEO at ENMR whose central office is located about 100 miles from the community. Not being a part of the pilot initiative, the ISD had bear the cost of equipping classrooms with production equipment.

Rather than providing an opportunity to share teachers, the technology served to set up a satellite classroom which delivered a full complement of ninth grade classes to students who would otherwise have to travel a great distance to attend the high school. A facilitator was on premises at the remote classroom during classes.

Although the program just began in the fall of 1992 with very little teacher preparation, there were indications of success. Students have the option of staying at the elementary school for the ninth grade or bussing to the high school with older students from the area. Eight out of the ten students who started the fall semester, elected to continue taking classes over the network. Grades for the ninth graders at the elementary school are as good or better than their peers at the high school. The English teacher, who was terrified at the prospect of using the technology at first, stated that her class with the network students was one of the best she has ever had.

Another development in the 1992-93 school year was the increased role of the community college in the network. Two schools in the four-day cluster were unable to offer a suitable course because of faculty changes. The community college was in a position to increase its participation and did so. Some school superintendents expressed a preference for courses offered by the college because of the dual enrollment advantages, and they felt that the accelerated pace of the college level courses was more consistent with the potential of the medium. Also, the community college began to offer a number of college level courses in the evening for community members with as many as 28 students enrolled at a given school. Courses offered were accounting, art appreciation, English composition, American national government, and psychology. The community college is currently writing a grant for nearly a half a million dollars to upgrade its network facilities in order to further expand course offerings.

The original vision of the manager and CEO of the ENMR has been scaled back for the time being. Originally, the company had planned to put as many as 20 schools on the network, and a number of schools have petitioned ENMR for network access. Although ENMR was partially compensated by the state for classroom installation, it is unlikely that it will make any further large scale investment unless the state and/or ISD's agree to support the initiative up front. Company officials state that only one other school is slated for network access in the near future. That would bring number of participating schools to ten.

3. **The TeleCommUNITY Network**, located in a small town in central Texas, began operations in the winter of 1992. Although the TeleCommUNITY Network came on-line recently, it was the first fully functioning two-way video and audio network in Texas. This project has perhaps the strongest community focus in that the first phase of implementation involved participants only from within the San Marcos community. Participants are: the local ISD, specifically the high school, a regional university, the local telephone company and a Job Corps Center located on the outskirts of town.

   The vision initially came from an assistant superintendent and a special education teacher who was a strong advocate of educational technologies. Quickly, support came from the local phone company who hired the special education teacher and a two-way interactive TV specialist, who had been trained on the system in Minnesota, to facilitate the program. This is the only instance among the projects studied where professional facilitators were brought in to develop and coordinate the program. The telco also financed the installation of the technical network, including classroom equipment. The three on-line sites agreed reimburse the telco over a five year period.

TeleCommUNITY, with a 14 member planning team, started meeting in January 1990, and implemented its network in January 1992, linking three sites in the community. Through a series of grants and support from the telephone company and the university, TeleCommUNITY began a unique program called PATH (Partners for Access to Higher Mathematics) Math. This program introduced pre-algebra skills to students who had previously failed in mathematics and were at risk in other higher order skills related to computational tasks. The course was team-taught by a university math professor who was located at the university, and by an ISD math teacher who was on premises with the students. Over 80 per cent of the students passed the course. Students will be tracked as they continue on with math and other studies.

Currently, the university is offering dual enrollment calculus to high school and Job Corps students over the network. The Job Corps plans to offer specialized vocational training to high school students and residents.

Other future plans for the network are:
- expansion of the network to outlying areas;
- to construct an additional classroom site at the university which will feature fully-interactive video, audio, and data capabilities which will interface with other on-line class labs;
- participants in local literacy programs will have access to on-line teaching at the high school, and originating at the Job Corps;
- implementation of other community activities, including on-line computing and video for children and adults of family literacy projects;
- to connect with an ITV network that is developing in a nearby metropolitan area.

4. **North Texas Educational Network (NTEN)** is a partnership among three north Texas ISD's, a parochial school, and a rural telephone company. The vision came from the owner and general manager of the telco who had seen demonstrations of the Oklahoma Panhandle system and believed that an area network could strengthen area schools, thereby preventing further erosion of the rural population. The owner has been successful in getting participation from the ISD's mentioned above, and is seeking support from additional ISD's, as well as an area college. Contractual arrangements with the on-board schools include reimbursement for the classroom equipment, and an annual fee for fiber optic access.

   NTEN is in the development stage, and has not yet fully equipped classrooms to begin using the system. NTEN held a two-way video demonstration at an area college in the summer of 1992, whereby members from local communities could see how the technology works. N-TEN has also participated in technology workshops to promote its initiative, as well as learn about others.

   Fiber optic cable has been installed between ISDs, and all equipment for implementation has been purchased by the local telco. Classrooms are in the process of being equipped. Training is expected to begin soon to prepare for inauguration of the network in the Fall of 1993.

   Initial plans call for the sharing of teaching expertise among the schools. Expected benefits for the future are an expanded and enhanced K-12 curriculum, dual high school and college credit, job training workshops and symposiums for the rural communities, programming capabilities for health care in rural areas and other community services.

5. **The Dell City Initiative** originated in a remote, underpopulated school district in far west Texas, about 90 miles from El Paso, and is facing the specter of consolidation. The vision to reach out with technology to strengthen the school and the community was first articulated by the Dell City ISD superintendent who had seen and studied some of the programs mentioned above. The manager of the local telephone cooperative has promised support, but apart from laying fiber optic to the school and giving encouragement, has been waiting for further alignment to occur.

   Initially, the project hopes to link three ISD's and a community college in El Paso, although agreements among participants are yet to be forged. All institutions have access to fiber optic cable. However, two of them, located in El Paso, are served by another telco which makes coordination even more problematic.

   Dell City is in the unique position of having the technology in place, capacity to transmit and funding for a media center, but as yet has been unable to secure educational alliances. An alliance has been formed with the Rural Telephone Cooperative which includes a conglomeration rural and small community

Telcos that extend from Lubbock, Texas to El Paso, although not inside El Paso. The ultimate strategy is to connect rural, small schools in the region, The University of Texas at El Paso, and El Paso Community College. Plans also include connecting with the University of Juarez in Mexico. Such a link would provide a international test site and would be the first in the United States. For the present, however, the superintendent at Dell City ISD would be content to communicate her vision to just a few of those rural, small schools. She wants to be fully functional within a year.

Although Dell City ISD is just in the genesis phase of implementation, it has already made enormous progress in getting right-of-way agreements with many telcos, and getting authorization, as well as support for the installation of necessary fiber optic cable enabling dedicated signal transmission.

Findings

- Two-way interactive video is alive, well, and growing in the Southwest. In spite of devastating local economic conditions, this technology can assist in the delivery effective education to rural, small schools.
- The technology cannot be implemented without the support of an extremely dedicated local visionary or visionaries. In all cases cited, the vision originated with one or two individuals who tenaciously continued efforts until the technology was implemented.
- Although expensive, the technology is affordable, but not without support from the business community, typically a local telco.
- All projects had enthusiastic support from small, rural telephone cooperatives or telephone companies. None of the larger telcos participated. In fact, they proved counter productive in some cases.
- Although projects had grand ideas from the outset, they started small and grew as the project matured.
- The technology was resisted by many on the teaching staff who feared that their jobs would be phased out. The technology appeared to do the contrary in that it enabled the offering of more courses which reduced the threat of consolidation.
- Typically, community support was favorable as soon as the technology was understood and differentiated from other less successful distance learning applications.
- In general, the major costs of implementation were originally undertaken by the local telco with partial reimbursement occurring over a period of time by the ISD's or by state DOE's.
- Teacher training is very important to the success of implementation. Delivery over the technology is substantially different from conventional classroom teaching. However, good classroom teachers make good teachers over the network. Teachers must given time to train and develop curricula for their mediated courses.
- The technology tends make teachers more organized and more conscious of the teaching process.
- Projects cannot survive without support and commitment of teachers who use the system.
- Education via the technology is as effective as conventional education.
- While all projects started out with specific classroom courses, all projects viewed the technology as a community resource. As projects matured, community offering increased, particularly in the area of adult education.
- The technology was used for a variety of educational configurations. Many advocates said that use of the technology "was only limited by the imagination."
- In almost all cases, projects studied were considered successful and have a likelihood of continuation.
- More coordination and flexibility in terms of federal and state regulations is necessary to accommodate new communications technologies. Without adjustments, widespread use of the technology will not occur.
- Participants, including students, teachers and administrators, involved with the technology tended to be strong advocates, even those who originally had strong reservations.
- Although the novelty of the program could be a significant element in explaining a project's early success, the most mature program (five years in duration) grew stronger as time progressed and is currently an integral part of the curriculum.

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Distance Learning:
A Paradigm for Certification for Special Educators

In the summer of 1987, representatives from the West Virginia Board of Education, the West Virginia Board of Regents, and the Distance Learning Committee met to solve a problem. It seems there was a need to certify and recertify special education teachers in the state. This problem was confounded by the fact that many of these teachers lived in very remote areas of the state and did not have ready access to the graduate colleges at Marshall University, the College of Graduate Studies, and West Virginia University. This committee began by looking at available resources first within their disciplines and next within the state.

Some members reviewed videotape sessions prepared by experts in the fields. Others evaluated microcomputer-based instructional modules. All agreed that these materials did suit the need in West Virginia. Instructors felt strongly that teacher-student interaction was important; these methods of course delivery did not allow for this.

In looking at available resources within the state, members met with staff at SATNET, a satellite-broadcast system set up by the state for educational purposes. SATNET provided send sites at the three graduate granting institutions; any site with a satellite dish could receive programming. This met the needs for course delivery. Two-way audio capability was added to the one-way video transmission. With this enhancement, teachers and students could interact during class sessions.

West Virginia is fortunate to have a centralized higher education computing network that reached every corner of the state. West Virginia Network for Educational Telecomputing (WVNET) provides mainframe computing, networking access within the state, and access to worldwide resources through BITNET and the Internet. The committee proposed that WVNET provide electronic mail access for those involved in the special education courses. This would allow teachers and students to interact outside the classroom more conveniently than playing phone tag. The teachers could also send out mass electronic mailings of syllabi, course notes, or other materials.

The committee was well on its way to developing a paradigm for distance learning. Their next challenge was evaluation of student outcomes. Course delivery by satellite enables the expertise within the state to reach a larger, often isolated audience. But, delivery of information is only one part of the teaching-learning experience. Just as satellite delivery of instruction is not a traditional teaching method, the traditional paper and pencil test does not suit the concept of distance learning. Instead, evaluation using existing computer hardware and communications is possible through the development of a test item bank at WVNET.

Here is the evaluation scenario for the distance learning paradigm. A university professor is teaching a satellite version of an assessment course. The time for a content test on Units 1-3 is next week. The professor has already entered 400 possible test questions in various categories into the test item bank. These questions can be true-false, multiple choice, short answer, or essay. Given the instructor's specifications, the computer will generate various forms of the exam. The forms will differ in several ways: the specific questions asked, the order in which they are presented, and the order in which the responses for multiple choice are presented. In this way, no two students will take the same exam. The computer will then deliver the exam to the student, score the true-false, multiple choice, and short answer questions, act as a grade book, and record the results for statistical analysis. The professor will be responsible for grading and commenting on essay questions. Students will be able to take the exam using a computer terminal within their own timeframe or as specified by the professor. Student will also have the opportunity to review their exam and their status in the class as well as interact with the professor using electronic mail.

The committee felt that their work was nearing completion; an information age paradigm had emerged from their investigations. Implementation of this paradigm was the next step. This required four administrative tasks: accessibility, training, support, and clearly defined goals. For accessibility, it was necessary that equipment and software be made available at the many sites throughout the state. Fortunately, most sites were amply equipped for this project. For training, WVNET staff provided workshops for instructors and site facilitators on the use of the system. The site facilitators, in turn, trained the students. Support from WVNET's central site included the technical aspects of network connections and a helpdesk for software support. Goals for the functionality of the test item bank software were crucial to the project's success. The committee developed a roadmap specifying their needs; WVNET staff then translated these needs into a flowchart and a design for developing the test item bank system (TIBS).

The paradigm was first implemented during the Spring Semester, 1991; 178 students at 18 sites throughout the state enrolled for a special education assessment course. Three faculty members from the state graduate institutions shared the satellite presentations. Enrollment in similar classes held on-campus normally have a limit of 20 students. This project offered easy access and efficient use of faculty time. Since this initial class, TIBS has been used both on and off campus for coursework, review for comprehensive exams, and administration of professional licensing examinations.

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ETHICAL DECISION IN SERVICES FOR PEOPLE WITH DISABILITIES

With the exception of an editorial that appeared in a recent issue of Mental Retardation (1992), an issue of Exceptional Children in 1983, and an article by Howe and Miramontes in the Journal of Special Education (1991) followed by the publication in 1992 of their book Ethics of Special Education (Teachers College Press), a focus on ethics in the delivery of educational and other human services to persons with disabilities is not available in the literature. During the past five years, the members of an Ad-Hoc Committee in the American Association on Mental Retardation has tried to publish a set of ethical standards for practice, yet, a majority of the members of that committee have been more interested in the issue of sanctions for not adhering to standards of professional conduct rather than on the kind of ethical action the standards are supposed to stimulate. While the Council for Exceptional Children has a Code of Ethics, it seems to us that they have not been widely distributed to educators and human service providers nor have they been used with any frequency in teacher and administrator training programs.

In our view, there is a need for the creation of a language of ethics in the field of disabilities as every act, planned or unplanned, has ethical implications for the students and people whom we are serving, their families, and ourselves as service providers. The language of disabilities should be based upon philosophical ideals which we can use to base that which we do in our work. The issue, it seems, is not whose ideals, rather, the point is to have frequent discussions and reflections on the issues which arise in our work; and, arrive at high standards of conduct through those discussions. If there is no discussion, then, the language that is developed will be short of those ideals understood by all.

To be sure, the starting point for our discourse, we believe, should be on ideals and philosophy representing the broadest possible understandings of those persons who do receive the services that are delivered: infancy, school-age, adolescence, young adulthood, adulthood, and elderly status. Moreover, from the outset, it is crucial that our discussion should deal with philosophy and ideals in order for there to be some higher "place" to move toward as educational programs and human services are planned and, then, delivered. Next, the site of service delivery should not be thought of as a means of differentiating the conduct of those persons engaged in service provision and personnel training. In closing, the discussion beginning now should be the starting place for continual discussion so that the language of ethics is advanced, thus, our field advances.

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ETHICAL DILEMMAS
IN RURAL SPECIAL EDUCATION

Case #1

JONATHAN IS 10 YEARS OLD, WITH MULTIPLE PHYSICAL DISABILITIES AND SEVERE MENTAL RETARDATION.

HE HAS BEEN INSTITUTIONALIZED ALL HIS LIFE UNTIL THE PREVIOUS YEAR, WHEN HE WAS PLACED IN A FOSTER HOME.

JONATHAN ATTENDS A LOCAL ELEMENTARY SCHOOL IN A SMALL RURAL DISTRICT, AND IS PLACED IN A PROGRAM FOR STUDENTS WITH SEVERE/PROFOUND DISABILITIES, WHICH HOUSES EIGHT (8) CHILDREN, ONE (I) TEACHER, AND TWO (2) INSTRUCTIONAL AIDES.

THE SCHOOL DISTRICT HAS BEEN UNABLE TO EMPLOY A PHYSICAL THERAPIST ON EVEN A PART-TIME BASIS TO PROVIDE THERAPY REQUIRED ON JONATHAN'S IEP. HOWEVER, THEY HAVE CONTRACTED WITH A PHYSICAL THERAPIST AT THE COUNTY HOSPITAL TO PROVIDE CONSULTATION TO THE SPECIAL EDUCATION TEACHER ON A TWICE MONTHLY BASIS.

ON ALTERNATE THURSDAYS, THE TEACHER AND JONATHAN ARE DRIVEN IN THE SPECIAL EDUCATION VAN TO THE HOSPITAL, WHERE THE PHYSICAL THERAPIST DEMONSTRATES RANGE-OF-MOTION AND OTHER THERAPEUTIC TECHNIQUES TO THE TEACHER, ALLOWS OPPORTUNITY FOR GUIDED PRACTICE, AND MONITORS THE TEACHER'S PERFORMANCE.

RECENTLY, JONATHAN'S FOSTER PARENTS NOTIFIED THE DIRECTOR OF SPECIAL EDUCATION THAT THEY INTEND TO FILE SUIT FOR BATTERY BECAUSE THEY BELIEVE THE TEACHER'S INAPPROPRIATE ADMINISTRATION OF THERAPY HAS CAUSED BRUISES ON HIS BODY.

Questions

1. Should the teacher perform physical therapy?
2. Should the teacher agree to be trained to perform physical therapy?
3. Should the physical therapist agree to consultation in this case?
4. Should the physical therapist train the teacher to perform therapy?
5. Should the school district withhold physical therapy from Jonathan if they cannot employ licensed personnel?
6. Should the parents sue the school, which has demonstrated a good-faith effort to provide Jonathan with .services?

Case #2

AN ATTORNEY FROM THE PROTECTION AND ADVOCACY SYSTEM IN A RURAL STATE HAS ASKED A PROFESSOR OF SPECIAL EDUCATION AT THE STATE UNIVERSITY TO OBSERVE CLASSROOM FOR STUDENTS WITH SEVERE/PROFOUND/MULTIPLE DISABILITIES IN ONE OF THE MOST RURAL SCHOOL DISTRICTS.

THE ATTORNEY INFORMS THE CONSULTANT THAT THE SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS AND THE DIRECTOR OF SPECIAL EDUCATION WANT INPUT INTO THE APPROPRIATENESS OF THESE EDUCATIONAL SETTINGS, AND THAT THEY WILL COOPERATE IN ADDRESSING ANY IDENTIFIED NEEDS.

THE CONSULTANT SPENDS AN ENTIRE DAY VISITING ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY PROGRAMS AT ONE LOCAL ELEMENTARY SCHOOL, AS WELL AS AT THE MIDDLE/HIGH SCHOOL COMPLEX, WHERE S/HE OBSERVES STUDENTS AND INTERVIEWS TEACHERS.

AT THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL (WHICH IS SOME 10 MILES FROM TOWN), THE STUDENTS WITH SEVERE/PROFOUND/MULTIPLE DISABILITIES ARE HOUSED IN ONE CLASSROOM, WHERE 10 STUDENTS ARE SERVED BY TWO (2) TEACHERS AND TWO (2) INSTRUCTIONAL AIDES. THIS CLASSROOM IS LOCATED IN A SMALL OUTBUILDING THAT ALSO CONTAINS THE PROGRAM FOR STUDENTS WITH BEHAVIOR DISORDERS. THE BUILDING IS SITUATED ACROSS THE MAIN PARKING LOT, APPROXIMATELY 100 YARDS FROM THE SCHOOL'S FRONT ENTRANCE.

THE SCHOOL PRINCIPAL AND TEACHERS INFORM THE CONSULTANT THAT THE STUDENTS COME TO THE MAIN BUILDING DURING THE DAY FOR PHYSICAL EDUCATION AND MEALS, AND SHARE THE PLAYGROUND BEHIND THE SCHOOL. THEY REPORT THAT THERE IS NO AVAILABLE SPACE IN THE BUILDING, AND AN ADDITION WOULD ELIMINATE THE ONLY SATISFACTORY PLAYGROUND AREA .

AT THE MIDDLE/HIGH SCHOOL COMPLEX (WHICH IS IN THE CENTER OF TOWN), THE STUDENTS WITH SEVERE/PROFOUND/MULTIPLE DISABILITIES ARE HOUSED IN ONE CLASSROOM, WHERE 12 STUDENTS ARE SERVED BY TWO (2) TEACHERS AND TWO (2) INSTRUCTIONAL AIDES. THIS CLASSROOM IS LOCATED IN A SMALL OUTBUILDING, WHICH IS DIVIDED INTO AN ACADEMIC AREA AND A LIVING SKILLS/CRAFTS AREA. THE BUILDING IS SITUATED ACROSS THE SIDE STREET FROM THE MAIN HIGH SCHOOL BUILDING, AND ACROSS THE MAIN STREET FROM THE ANNEX (INCLUDING THE CAFETERIA). THE LOCATION PROVIDES EASY ACCESS BY WALKING TO A VARIETY OF SHOPS, SERVICES, JOBS, AND RECREATIONAL SITES.

THE TEACHERS REPORT THAT THE STUDENTS PARTICIPATE IN MANY EVENTS AND ACTIVITIES WITH THE OTHER STUDENTS IN THE CAFETERIA, GYM, AND AUDITORIUM, AS WELL AS IN SOME CLASSES. STUDENTS ALSO ARE INVOLVED IN COMMUNITY-BASED TRAINING ACTIVITIES, AND SUPPORTED EMPLOYMENT TRAINING. THEY STATE THAT THE DISTRICT IS CONSIDERING PLANS TO BUILD A NEW SCHOOL TO PROVIDE ADDITIONAL CLASSROOM SPACE, BUT THAT THE OUT-OF-TOWN LOCATION WILL LIMIT THE STUDENTS' OPPORTUNITIES FOR COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT.

AT THE END OF THE DAY, THE CONSULTANT MEETS WITH THE ATTORNEY, WHO ANNOUNCES THAT THE PROTECTION AND ADVOCACY AGENCY WANTS THIS INFORMATION TO INSTIGATE A CLASS ACTION SUIT AGAINST THE STATE BOARD OF EDUCATION TO ELIMINATE ALL CLASSROOMS LOCATED IN OUTBUILDINGS, ON THE GROUNDS THAT THEY ARE IN VIOLATION OF THE FEDERAL LAW MANDATING LEAST RESTRICTIVE PLACEMENT.

Questions

1. Should the attorney have concealed the real purpose of the consultation?
2. Should the consultant provide the information once the real purpose has been revealed?
3. Should the consultant participate in the law suit?
4. Should the school district replace the classrooms?
5. Would the proposed changes to provide new classrooms benefit the students with disabilities? their peers?
6. What is the most appropriate interpretation of the "least restrictive environment" principle in this case?

Case #3

SHERRY IS 14 YEARS OLD, WITH PROFOUND MENTAL RETARDATION.

SHE LIVES WITH HER PARENTS AND SISTER IN THE FAMILY HOME, WHICH IS LOCATED ON TOP OF A MOUNTAIN IN A REMOTE RURAL AREA.

SHERRY ATTENDS THE LOCAL ELEMENTARY SCHOOL, AND IS PLACED IN A PROGRAM FOR STUDENTS WITH SEVERE/PROFOUND DISABILITIES, WITH SIX (6) CHILDREN, ONE (I) TEACHER, AND ONE (1) INSTRUCTIONAL AIDE. THE SCHOOL IS LOCATED APPROXIMATELY TEN (10) MILES FROM HER HOME, AND IS ATTENDED BY NEIGHBOR CHILDREN.

THE DIRECTOR OF SPECIAL EDUCATION HAS ADVISED ALL PARENTS THAT THE STATE PROGRAM MONITOR HAS CITED THE SCHOOL DISTRICT FOR FAILURE TO PLACE STUDENTS WITH SEVERE DISABILITIES IN AGE-APPROPRIATE SCHOOL SETTINGS.

THE TEACHER HAS INFORMED SHERRY'S PARENTS THAT A PLACEMENT ADVISORY COMMITTEE MEETING WILL BE HELD TO PREPARE FOR SHERRY'S TRANSFER TO THE NEW HIGH SCHOOL PROGRAM FOR STUDENTS WITH SEVERE/PROFOUND/MULTIPLE DISABILITIES.

SHERRY'S PARENTS ARE OPPOSED TO THE CHANGE IN PLACEMENT, BECAUSE SHERRY WILL HAVE TO TRAVEL ON THE BUS OVER AN HOUR EACH WAY ON DANGEROUS ROADS TO GET TO THE HIGH SCHOOL, WILL NO LONGER BE AMONG TEACHERS AND FRIENDS WITH WHOM SHE IS FAMILIAR, AND WILL BE AT TOO GREAT A DISTANCE FOR THEM TO REACH IN CASE OF EMERGENCY. THEY BELIEVE THE SCHOOL DISTRICT SHOULD IMPLEMENT A SECONDARY LEVEL PLACEMENT SOLELY FOR SHERRY TO BE HOUSED AT THE NEARBY JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

SCHOOL DISTRICT OFFICIALS ARGUE THAT THEY CANNOT AFFORD A SEPARATE SECONDARY LEVEL CLASSROOM FOR SHERRY, THAT SHE WILL BENEFIT FROM BEING GROUPED WITH OTHER STUDENTS HER OWN AGE, AND THAT THE HIGH SCHOOL PLACEMENT WILL ALLOW HER ACCESS TO A COMMUNITY-BASED TRAINING PROGRAM.

Questions

1. Should the state monitor require the school district to change these placements to conform to regulations?
2. Should the school district change Sherry's placement?
3. Should the parents oppose the change in placement?
4. Should the parents demand a placement solely for Sherry?
5. Should the school district create a placement solely for Sherry?
6. What placement best meets Sherry's educational needs?

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A Comparison of Rural Laboratory School Children from Divorced and Non-Divorced Family Environments on a Standardized Measure of Academic Achievement

Divorce rates in the United States have fluctuated greatly since 1867, the first year in which data became available. Recent trends, especially since the 1960s, have shown a dramatic increase in this rate. In 1985, for example, there were 5.3 divorces per 1,000 persons in the United States, a rate 17 times that of 1867 (Emery, 1988). In the United States, fatherless families made up 15% of the population in 1982 and 46% of the poor (Walker, Kozma, & Green, Jr., 1989). It has been estimated that 40% to 50% of children born between the years 1970 and 1980 will spend some of their lives living in single-parent families (Hetherington, 1979).

Interest in the Impact of Divorce

Interest in the impact of divorce on the ability of a family to function has come from a variety of sources. The section that follows provides a review of economic influences and research findings on the impact of divorce on children.

Economic Influences

As the Twenty-first Century rapidly approaches, the divorce rate in the United States continues at a level higher than was found 20 or 30 years ago. more homes exist, today, with both spouses employed on a full- or part-time basis. This creates a situation wherein there is twice the expectation (i.e. from both working spouses) for emotional needs being met at home. If both husband and wife are working, each may not be emotionally prepared (at the end of a workday) to support the other.

Additional family-directed stress is being evidenced at the close of the Twentieth Century. As the threat of the communist bloc counties diminish, Western countries that, for the most part, were reliant on massive defense expenditures as the foundation of their economies must shift their industrial bases. Unfortunately, industries that traditionally have been able to acquire large defense contracts have been slow to adapt to a "peacetime" economy. The immediate effect, as witnessed in the 1990s, has been: 1) to "downsize" (layoff) the workforce in plants in the United States, and 2) to relocate operations to more "economically feasible" locations where labor can be obtained for lower wages and where regulations governing workers compensation, toxic waste disposal, and pollution control are more lax. Thus, more families in the 1990s are facing "making ends meet" with lowered incomes. The stress on families, therefore, has not declined over the past 20 years, in fact, for some Americans, the stress level has undoubtedly risen. From 1970 to 1989, the percent of children living with one parent increased from 12% to 24%, with many children living with mothers struggling to make ends meet (U. S. Bureau of the Census, 1989).

Divorce with Children in the Home

It would seem likely that the presence of children in the home would be an overriding factor that would hold families together during stressful times. To the contrary, however, Emery (1988) indicates that married couples are not as likely to remain married for the sake of the children. In some cases, though, children in the home can serve as a deterrent to divorce. These cases usually involve couples with children of preschool age who, when compared to childless couples and couples with older children, are about half as likely to divorce (Waite, Haggstrom, & Kanouse, 1985). As those children reach school age, however, couples tend to divorce at a rate nearly equal to that of childless couples (Cherlin, 1977). Hetherington (1979), however, cautions that divorce be viewed in the context of an on-going deterioration of the family situation, rather than as a single, isolated event.

Effect of Divorce on Males and Females

The effect of divorce on children has been studied primarily from an emotional viewpoint, often with gender-difference comparisons. Divorce has been found to have a long-term negative effect on boys' adjustment, but that girls have more problems when their mothers remarry (Hetherington, Cox, & Cox, 1985). There is some evidence to suggest that behavior problems decrease in boys when a custodial mother remarries, though not to a level as low as that found in boys from non-divorced families (Santrock, Warshak, & Elliott, 1982).

While most research findings have consistently found that boys react to divorce with more adjustment problems and lowered academic performance (Guidubaldi & Perry, 1985; Rizzo & Zabel, 1988), it has been suggested that girls may have equally serious adjustment problems, but at a later stage of life. Kalter, Riemer, Brickman, and Chen (1985) studied the adjustment patterns of elementary school, high school, and college-level females from divorced families. These researchers found no significant differences in adjustment patterns between 3rd and 6th Grade girls of divorced and non-divorced families. However, adolescent girls whose parents were divorced exhibited a significantly greater frequency of adolescent girls from non-divorced families. Finally, Kalter and his colleagues found that college-level women from divorced families had more negative attitudes toward men and women and were less hopeful about the future than college-level women from non-divorced families.

Divorce and Academic Achievement

Various investigations have shown that children from single-parent families are at some risk intellectually, socially, and emotionally (Emery, 1982; Shinn, 1978; Wallerstein & Blakeslee, 1989). It should be recognized, however, that the family structure, per se, may not be the single influencing factor of the development of children. A key variable impacting child development is the ability of families, regardless of their structure, to function in addressing the needs of children (Emery, Hetherington, & DiLalla, 1984). To this end, social class has been found to be a far greater determiner in children's cognitive and educational performance than family structure (Chavkin, 1989).

If, however, divorce affects social class status or the ability of the single-parent to participate in her/his children's education, then it can serve as a catalyst for establishing a maladaptive achievement-related environment in the home. For example, if divorce results in a single-parent having to assume an increased work load to support the family, then that parent may not be able or inclined to become actively involved in her/his children's education. Since parent involvement has been shown to be of great importance in promoting student achievement (Henderson, 1988), the results of a divorce can limit or eliminate the amount of time a parent can devote to school-related endeavors.

The focus of this study, therefore, is to examine the effect that divorce might have on the academic performance of elementary-aged children. Specifically, this study investigates performance differences of children from divorced and non-divorced homes on two subtests (Language Expression and Mathematical Computation) of the Comprehensive Test of Basic Skills (CTBS) (CTB Macmillan/McGraw-Hill, 1991).

Method

Subjects

Sixty students were randomly selected from a laboratory school affiliated with a small college in rural eastern Oregon. Of this pool of 60 students, 45 had data on both the Language Expression and Mathematical Computation subtests of the CTBS. Since all of the 45 students had percentile ranks rather than raw or scale scores, it was decided to conduct analyses based on the available percentile rank equivalencies.

The sample was composed of students in the 2nd, 3rd, and 4th Grades. Their mean age (at the time of CTBS administration) was 8.45 years. There were 21 males and 24 females in the sample. Twenty-two students (10 females and 12 males) came from divorced homes and 23 students (14 females and 9 males) came from non-divorced homes.

Procedure

CTBS percentile ranks were obtained for the 45 students via file records kept at the laboratory school. In all cases, the CTBS percentile ranks reflected academic achievement during the same academic year (1991 - 1992).

Results

A series is separate two-tailed *t* tests were conducted to determine significant differences of CTBS performance between students from divorced and non-divorced environments. A non-directional, two-tailed test was used due to the lack of clear assertion about the direction of the difference between comparative means (Ferguson, 1981).

Limitations of the Study

Two factors which could limit the generalizability of the results of this study are the relatively small *n* in the sample and the use of percentile ranks for analysis. In statistical applications (such as those used in this study), the generalizability of the results is affected by the degree to which a sampling distribution of means approaches the normal distribution. As such, this proximity of distributions becomes "closer" as sample size increases. In the present study, therefore, results from a sample of 22 children from divorced homes and 23 children from non-divorced homes may not precisely parallel results obtained from larger samples of students.

In using a transform score such as a percentile rank some information may be masked in analysis. For example, two or three raw scores may all equate to the same percentile rank (e.g. raw scores of 290 and 291 may both equate to the 23rd percentile). In this manner, differences may be imbedded in the data that are not revealed or used in analysis due to the nature of the transformation.

Divorced vs. Non-Divorced Students

The first comparison conducted was the CTBS subtest performance of students from divorced and non-divorced homes. Means and standard deviations for subtest performance of divorced and non-divorced students is displayed in Table 1. *T*-test analysis of the mean percentile ranks revealed a significant difference in performance on Language Expression, $t = 2.64$, df = 43, $p < .05$. However, no significant performance difference was found for Mathematical Computation, $t = 0.66$, df = 43, $p > .05$.

Performance by Gender

Gender comparisons were conducted on each CTBS subtest to determine significant mean differences. The performances of females and males on the two CTBS subtests are displayed in Table 2. While the females outperformed the males on both subtests, the differences in mean percentile ranks were non-significant. Subsequent analyses were conducted to determine how within-gender divorced and non-divorced students performed on the CTBS subtests.

As shown in Table 3, non-divorced females (n = 14) and males (n = 9) outperformed their divorced counterparts (10 females and 12 males) on the Language Expression subtest. While the mean percentile rank differences were large for both gender subgroups (13 and 18 percentile points, respectively), neither was significant. The results for females were, $t = 1.57$, df = 22, $p > .05$, while the results for males were, $t = 1.92$, df = 19, $p > .05$.

A final comparison was conducted of the CTBS performance, by gender, on the Mathematical Computation subtest. As shown in Table 4, the performance of non-divorced females and males was slightly superior to that of the students from divorced homes. These performance differences, however, were not as large as found for Language Expression (Table 3), and, therefore, were not significant.

Discussion

The results of this study confirm previous research on the adjustment of children from divorced families. The students of divorce had lower mean percentile ranks in all analyses, although only the difference on the Language Expression subtest of the CTBS was significant. A possible explanation for the significant difference on this subtest can be found in research that links learning difficulties with family structure. Werner, Bierman and French (1971) and Werner and Smith (1977) found that children with characteristics symptomatic of learning disabilities (e.g. poor verbal skills, immature vocabulary) were more likely to come from a home in which the father was absent, or where the family environment was unstable.

Examination by gender revealed that females had non-significantly higher mean percentile ranks on both the Language Expression and Mathematical Computation subtests. Analysis by subtest demonstrated that in both cases, regardless of gender, the non-divorced group achieved at non-significantly higher levels.

As stated earlier in this article, caution should be exercised in linking student achievement solely to family structure. Factors such as social class status, parental involvement, and the family's ability to function all are important influences on student achievement. However, the fact that divorce often negatively effects these factors (Langdon, 1991), can contribute to the lowered achievement levels of children of divorced families.

The implications of this study demonstrate that even in laboratory school settings, children of divorce exhibit lower achievement levels. Administrators and teachers in laboratory schools need to take advantage of their higher education surroundings and draw on the expertise of faculty from disciplines such as education, counseling, psychology, and sociology in designing mechanisms to assist students in coping with divorce. An example of such a mechanism is the Teacher Assistance Team instituted at the laboratory school at Eastern Oregon State College (Smutz & Fabert, 1992). This team works with teachers in an advisory capacity to assist them with students who have learning and/or behavioral difficulties.

Despite the recent rhetoric on "family values", it is highly likely that children of divorce will continue to be a significant sub-group enrolled in our nation's schools. It is imperative, therefore, that laboratory schools use all of their available resources in developing models that assist children of divorce in continuing to progress academically, socially, and intellectually. The right amount of support at the right time may make the difference in an individual student's success or failure in school and, eventually, in life.

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Table 1

CTBS Performance in Percentile Ranks of Students from Divorced and Non-Divorced Families

CTBS Subtest	Divorced (n=22)		Non-Divorced (n=23)	
	X	SD	X	SD
Language Expression	54.82	21.03	70.74	19.50
Mathematical Computation	58.04	28.96	63.61	28.00

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Table 2

CTBS Performance in Percentile Ranks by Gender

CTBS Subtest	Females (n=24)		Males (n=21)	
	X	SD	X	SD
Language Expression	65.83	20.79	59.67	22.52
Mathematical Computation	64.92	26.25	56.28	30.43

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Table 3

Language Expression Subtest Performance by Gender of Divorced and Non-Divorced Students

	Females		Males	
	X	SD	X	SD
Divorced	58.20	22.54	52.00	20.24
Non-Divorced	71.28	18.34	69.89	22.33

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Table 4

Mathematical Computation Subtest Performance by Gender of Divorced and Non-Divorced Students

	Females		Males	
	X	SD	X	SD
Divorced	64.40	24.89	52.75	32.04
Non-Divorced	65.28	28.11	61.00	29.32

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The 21st Century and Secondary School At-Risk Students: What's Ahead for Teachers in Rural America?

All of us, at times, dream about what the future holds for us, our loved ones, and the world in general. As educators, we inwardly smile at the post-secondary future for some of our students. For our at-risk students, our optimism is merely a glimmer within a larger picture of uneasiness. The present is not a very amiable place for at-risk students, and the future may be more of the same; but what about teachers and the teaching environment? What does the future hold in store for us, the educators who are charged with caring for the at-risk student? Does it contain a lessened demand for our services due to smaller numbers of students, more effective methods, expanded resources, or none of these? The purpose of this paper is to consider these possibilities within the larger context of what the future may contain for the teachers of at-risk students in the first part of the 21st century.

This theme was explored by first considering the major trends which are likely to impact rural America, our lifestyle, and the manner in which we educate our young. From among the trends which have been identified by futurists as likely to influence our lives, three were selected based upon the diversity and interrelatedness represented, and the impact on education which would be produced. These were (1) the general aging of America's population (Hamrick, 1991), (2) general economic conditions (Hamrick, 1991; Deavers, 1991), and (3) technology (Coates, Jarratt, & Ragunas, 1992). Using these as a beginning point for a consideration of the future, the next step was to identify the areas which would be influenced most, what changes these would portend, and how rural education would be affected. The areas which were felt to be the best candidates for being affected to the greatest extent and in turn influencing rural education were political emphases, legislation, the rural economy, and educational approaches.

Consider for a moment how the aging, economic, and technological trends may materialize as major influences within each of these spheres.

Political Influences: Politically the graying of the population is likely to influence American education by shifting emphases. Given the size of the older cohort of voters, prominent issues are likely to be more health and safety related and less oriented toward youth services. This has ramifications in government expenditures. It is easy to imagine a scenario in which a smaller percentage of public funds is spent on public education. A corollary of this reduced funding trend is the expectation that schools do more with fewer financial resources and the press for schools to justify the money which is appropriated. With world economic domination a historical afterthought, competition for the available public funds will be much greater, and the voice of education is not as loud in an aging population as in a younger one. Therefore, in relative terms we can expect to have fewer funds available. Program spending for at-risk students may increase as a percentage of the total education expenditures, but that increase is likely to be achieved by subtraction from within other school budget items as opposed to having additional resources appropriated. The economy and technology are likely to influence political emphases relevant to education only to the extent that each contributes to the level of funding available to finance government and governmental programs.

Legal Influences: What legal emphases important to rural life can be expected to result from the graying of the population? A widespread concern for health and health issues is likely to be a prominent feature of the country's population in the future. One outcome of this could be the increase in the number of laws regulating environmental conditions. Some of these, such as industrial emission control, can be expected to have more impact in metropolitan areas, but others which involve agricultural products, mining, and timberlands are likely to influence rural areas more through impacting the economic climate. Some of this impact is likely to be positive, such as promoting increased recreational usages, but others will tend to depress regional economies which are heavily dependent upon agriculture and resource extraction. The net result is that rural communities which can capitalize upon the increased demand for recreational opportunities will be able to offset lost revenues from more traditional rural "industries" and thus more money will ultimately be available for educational expenditures. Technology and general economic conditions are not seen as promoting laws which will influence the manner in which education in rural America takes place.

Economic Influences: In considering the economic trends which are likely to be the major influences of the next 25 years for rural America, it is helpful to view rural areas differentially. This distinction with respect to economic impact can be made of the basis of proximity to a metropolitan area and the concentration of poor in the area. These two conditions will likely temper and channel economic influences within rural areas.

The general trend in the national economic structure is a reduction in the number of agricultural, mining, resource related, and manufacturing jobs; a corresponding increase is projected in service related areas (Hamrick, 1991). This shift in the national economic base is bad news for rural America since the projected job losses are concentrated in industries which are found more often in rural areas. To capitalize upon the increase in jobs in the "high profile" service sector necessitates proximity to a metropolitan area (Deavers, 1991). Thus rural areas which surround metropolitan ones have a good chance to offset job losses in the more traditional rural job markets and to flourish in the economic times ahead. Other rural areas can anticipate a continuation of a 20th century trend of higher levels of poverty, higher unemployment, and lower earnings than nonrural areas (Deavers, 1991), unless there are dramatic shifts in the economic base of rural communities. Given the link between economic conditions and the incidence of family instability (Abrahamse, Morrison, & Waite, 1988; Moore, Peterson, & Zill, 1985), the future incidence of family instability may get worse in rural areas characterized by poor economic conditions.

The concentration of poor in a rural area has ramifications on two different economic fronts. The first of these is that it probably indicates that the general economic and job bases for the community or region are not thriving. While this could be a temporary condition, it may reflect past and more importantly future conditions. Secondly, having a high concentration of rural poor likely would signify that the general tax base of the community is low and therefore, there will be less money available for educational expenditures in a situation where there may be the need for more educational services.

Technology in general, and telecommunications more specifically, holds great promise for serving as a base in the diversification of rural economies (Coates, Jarratt, & Ragunas, 1992). Telecommunications eliminate the necessity of being close to a metropolitan area in order to have access to a critical mass of potential clients or customers. Service industries built upon the capabilities of telecommunications can be located in rural areas as easily as in nonrural ones. For individuals who prefer a rural lifestyle, telecommunication service industries offer the possibility of living in a rural area while engaging in a career which focuses upon servicing businesses within a metropolitan area. Jobs created around the telecommunication hub would clearly make more money available for education and would make inroads into the unemployment and poverty conditions of rural America. If the jobs created required advanced skill levels, then one could anticipate a corresponding increase in the educational attainment within the community.

Educational Influences: The aging of the population and general economic conditions are likely to be felt most in education through the amount of money which is made available to support the schools. As was previously stated, there is the potential that both the older population and the general economy will produce pressures which will result in there being relatively less money for schools. This may stimulate a change in the structure of secondary education. With the increased competition for public money, consolidation of services is a possibility. One that appears to be practical would be the merging of some high school and community college programs, especially in the trades/industry field. The net result would be a cost effective expansion of the curriculum available to high school students.

The future influence of technology (telecommunications) on the way we are formally educated in rural America may be greater than any other element mentioned. It possesses the potential to expand instruction and the curriculum of small, rural schools within the constraints of shrinking budgets. Architectural drawing does not need to remain the province of students who attend larger high schools. In like manner, rural teachers do not need to create every piece of instructional material that she/he would like to use. Another positive feature of telecommunications technology is that it is certain to become cheaper and more prevalent, both inside and outside educational settings. This condition provides an additional opportunity for the out-of-school environment to support instruction.

In summarizing the areas in rural education likely to be influenced most by political emphases, legislation, the rural economy, and educational approaches, the following seemed to be the most distinct.

1. A smaller percentage of public money is likely to be available for rural schools due to changing political emphases, laws, and general economic conditions.
2. There is likely to be more emphasis on educational accountability due to changing political emphases.
3. A greater representation of students from families characterized by unstable social and economic conditions may occur within a number of rural classrooms due to general economic conditions.

4. The expansion of the rural school curriculum and the use of more technological oriented teaching approaches are likely as a result of political emphases and general technological development.

Given these potential changes in rural education, what promise or doom do they hold for us, the teachers of students who are at risk of leaving school prior to graduation? In order to get a better idea of how these might influence conditions which would either increase or decrease the likelihood that students would complete school, it is helpful to consider factors which influence the decision to leave school prior to graduating. The dropout decision is a complex one which is influenced by a number of conditions, both inside and outside the school environment. A good overview of these dropout factors, particularly as they have relevance for rural schools, is presented in Bull, Salyer, Montgomery, and Hyle (1992). These factors were inserted into an adaptation of a dropout model for higher education presented in Tinto (1987) and Tinto (1975) in order to conceptualize the dynamics of the decision to leave school prior to graduating. This model is presented in Figure 1.

This model posits that the dropout decision is highly dependent upon the academic and social integration of the at-risk student. The two constructs, in turn, are directly and indirectly influenced by such diverse areas as grades, participation in extracurriculars, and family background. The effect of these ultimately materializes in the decision to drop out or remain in school. For our current considerations, we need to focus upon how the changes in the rural education environment which may be produced by future trends could impact the dropout decision factors.

The first future trend identified was that of relatively less money being available for rural schools. If this manifests itself through larger classes, larger schools, and cutbacks in extracurriculars, one could expect the level of interaction with faculty to suffer and social integration to be less. Under these conditions, the dropout rate would increase. Given that the majority of school budgets is spent on salaries, larger class sizes seem almost guaranteed under conditions where budgets are shrinking. Unless offset through improving other conditions, the larger classes would likely increase the dropout rate. Larger schools are associated with lower student participation rates in activities. This tends to reduce the level of social integration and hence, like larger classes, would foreshadow an increase in the dropout rate. Thus large decreases in the

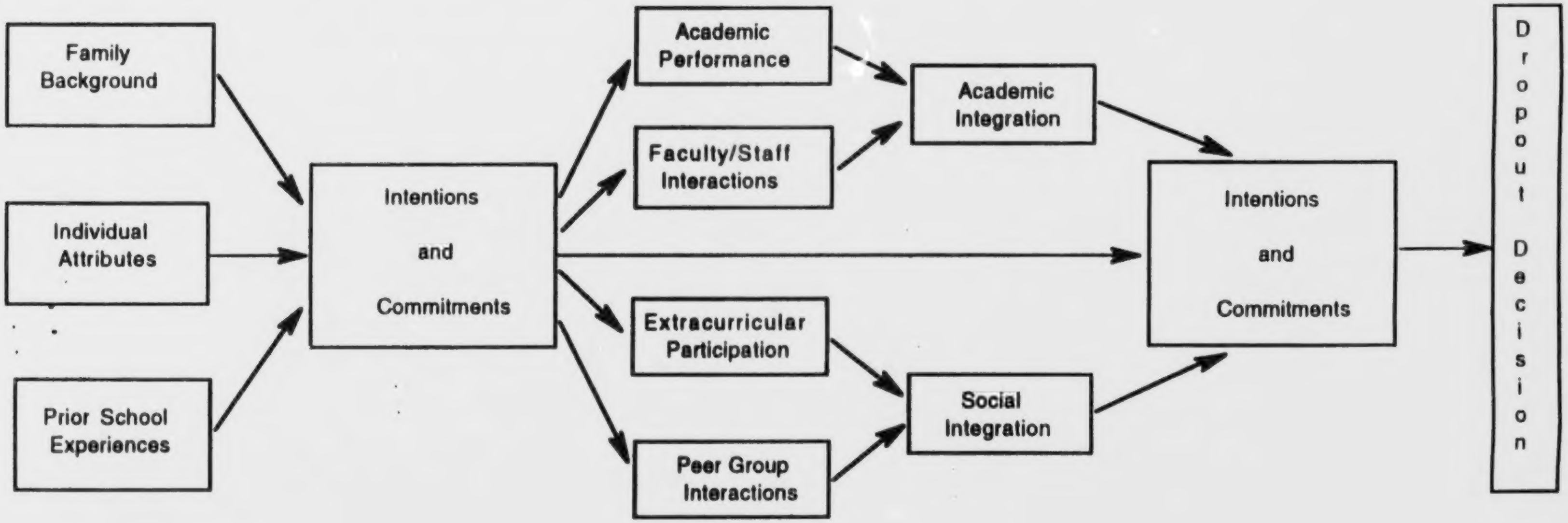
Family Background
Individual Attributes
Prior School Experiences
Intentions and Commitments
Academic Performance
Faculty/Staff Interactions
Extracurricular Participation
Peer Group Interactions
Academic Integration
Social Integration
Intentions and Commitments
Dropout Decision

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Figure 1. A model of the dropout decision based on Tinto (1975)

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relative amount of money appropriated for education on a per student basis would be likely to increase the dropout rate.

A continuation of the movement for increased educational accountability was the second trend identified. Currently, this movement emphasizes higher graduation standards and more focus on core academic subjects. The extension of this into the 21st century would likely reduce the at-risk student's perception that school was a "relevant" place for her/him. On a larger scale this would probably result in an increase in both the number of disenfranchised students and the dropout rate.

A greater proportion of students from unstable home environments was the third area of influence mentioned. The close association among these family characteristics, educational attainment, and economic conditions is likely to generate a large impact on the rural education dropout picture. If the economy within a rural area is quite good, then the problems associated with cutbacks in money for education are alleviated somewhat. Likewise, the negatives associated with unstable family environments would be less. This would have ramifications for practically all aspects of the dropout decision model. With more stable home environments, all factors contributing to social and academic integration would be improved and there would be a smaller probability of students dropping out.

If economic conditions are not good in a rural area and there are high concentrations of rural poor, then family instability is likely to be a widespread condition. The combination of poverty and family instability could be expected to produce a lowered academic orientation, both in terms of interest and in performance. The net result would be less personal identity with the academic mission of the school and less involvement in the social milieu of the school. These conditions likely would produce higher dropout rates.

The expansion of the rural school curriculum and the increased use of more technologically oriented teaching approaches represent the last rural education area identified in the earlier analysis. These are likely to have a positive influence in reducing the dropout rate. An expanded curriculum, particularly in the vocational areas, would be a helpful addition in the education of the at-risk student. Through access to an expanded curriculum, the potential dropout is more likely to find an area of interest. This would stimulate a higher level of academic integration and would reduce the chances of dropping out.

Incorporating instructional approaches utilizing telecommunication technology may not have much impact on the dropout decision. The high quality associated with it is likely to promote interest, and the variety available will capitalize upon the unique interests of each student. The down side of heavy reliance upon its use is that it removes the student from contact with teachers. The reduced contact would tend to lower academic integration and elevate dropout rates. It is felt that the improved interest benefits derived from the additional use of technology will outweigh any reduced contact with teachers, so that overall, technology should help in reducing dropout rates.

In looking at these four areas, it seems as though our ability to address the education of at-risk students will improve in certain areas and not be as good in others. There are likely to be great improvements in some rural communities and declines in others. The key to whether the at-risk student problem becomes better or worse within a particular rural community appears to be the state of the local economy and the number of rural poor who reside in the community. These clearly are outside the "sphere of influence" of rural teachers.

What are our options as educators in leading the education of at-risk students? The following are offered as our principles for both tomorrow and today.

1. We can try to create a personal relationship with these students.
2. We can try to capitalize on the interests of the students.
3. We can try to create an environment which supports the academic efforts of at-risk students.
4. We can try to incorporate parents into the educational process as much as possible.

Together our efforts in these areas will not improve local economies nor alter political emphases, but they can balance out some of the things over which we have no control.

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Impacting Attitudes of Teachers Toward Mainstream Students Who are At-Risk: A Holistic Approach

Abstract

The number of students who are at-risk continues to increase. One method used to combat the problem is preservice and/or inservice training. A holistic training program including components of emotional, academic, physical, and social needs of both student and family is the intervention in this study. This training program provided graduate students with instruction in these content areas. Statistical analysis subsequent to course delivery examined the effect of increases in knowledge on the attitudes of professional educators teaching students who are at-risk. Data collected includes dependent variable pre/post measures on knowledge about and attitudes toward students who are at-risk. A mixed analyses of variance repeated measures design was used in this study. Pre/post testing occasions were within subjects variables and demographic information about the participants were the between subjects variables tested. Results indicated that professional educators' knowledge increased on the pre/post testing occasions. Professional educators involved with secondary students had higher knowledge scores than those working with elementary students. Participants at one location had greater increases in knowledge than participants at the second location. The implications for preservice/inservice training programs targeting teachers of students who are at-risk are discussed.

Impacting Attitudes of Teachers Toward Mainstream Students Who are At-Risk: A Holistic Approach

Failure and dropout rates in rural public schools are at alarming levels (Helge, 1991). This is a problem for educators, students, and families to collectively confront. The need to rectify this situation is obvious, but a model to use as a template for reversing the trend is lacking. It is necessary to identify the at-risk population, intervene, and evaluate the approach (Helge, 1991). Lists of characteristics of students who are at-risk (Helge,1991; Lombardi, Odell, & Novotny, 1990) are used for identification of such students. When a student exhibits one or more of these characteristics they may be at-risk (Helge 1991). Currently, intervention by professional educators is a reactive response. The students' undesirable behaviors are manifested to the point of creating problems within the school system. The student fails a course, is retained, and/or drops out of school altogether. Formal ongoing evaluation of programs for students who are at-risk is necessary. This decreases the percentage of at-risk students failing and/or dropping out of school.

Lists of characteristics of students who are at-risk include but are not limited to such things as: grade retention, expulsion, substance abuse, low self-esteem, attempted suicide, depression, poverty, family illiteracy, children of substance abusers, children of dropouts, sexually active/pregnant children, criminal activity, minority background, students identified as special education, and physical, psychological, and/or sexual abuse, (Helge,1991; Lombardi, Odell, & Novotny, 1990). Usually, students with disabilities exhibit one or more of the characteristics of the at-risk population as well (Helge 1991). This compounds the problem of instruction since mainstreaming of students with special needs increases the at-risk population in the general education classroom.

Madeline Will (1986) renewed the spirit of educating all students with disabilities in the least restrictive environment in her report to the Secretary of Education. In her report, Will (1986) supports the position that most students with mildly handicapping conditions are to be educated in the regular classroom. Subsequent to that report an inclusion model, the Regular Education Initiative (REI), is emerging. As a result, an increasing number of special education and former special education students who no longer qualify to receive special services are placed in general education classrooms. In many cases this occurs before the general education teachers are advised or prepared to accept the new mainstreamed special needs students.

There are many students who are at-risk, having one or more of the characteristics listed above but never qualifying or requiring special education services. General education teachers are willing to actively participate in the mainstreaming effort. They are willing to be part of the integration of all students into the general education program. General educators' involvement includes planning, developing, implementing, and evaluating integration procedures. In order to be successful, general educators indicate a need for training (Savage & Wienke, 1989). Furthermore, Myles and Simpson (1989) suggest designing inservice programs to acquaint and re -acquaint general education teachers in methods and rationale for educating of all students in the regular classroom.

Ornstein and Levine (1989) argue that schools can make a difference in treating students who are at-risk by teaching teachers to deal with the problems that cause the at-risk students' low school achievement. Roth and Hendrickson (1991) suggest enlisting students who are at-risk to help in problem solving activities by identifying behaviors which put students in an at-risk status. In turn, if teachers empower students to view their own action and reaction in society (school) to understand their own problems as an alternative to various forms of self abuse, then students share ownership of the process to reduce the negative aspects of the at-risk status (Roth, & Hendrickson, 1991). Therefore, methods in collaborative group problem solving dealing with maltreatment issues and social skills instruction are needed components of a graduate course about treating students who are at-risk. Benefits of such instruction are development of competence in peer, parent, and teacher relations.

A culturally, ethnically, and racially pertinent holistic educational curriculum is important to all involved in the school. The content, delivery, and evaluation methods of curriculum require flexibility for change to meet the needs of all students (Gay, 1990). Moral education imbedded into the curriculum provides the potential at-risk student with an understanding of societal problems, creates a sense of moral responsibility in the student, and acts as a proactive approach in avoiding an at-risk status for some students (Beach, 1991). In general, the school must stand above all human shortcomings and practice ethical decision making. This protects all parties in the system and at the same time reduces the at-risk status of students who are involved in dilemmas which may place them at-risk (Eberlein, 1989). A school curriculum providing a proactive approach including student involvement and components of social skills instruction, self awareness, and morality training is important. Principals and teachers regard special education instructional methods as effective teaching strategies for students who are at-risk in the general education classroom (Lombardi, Odell, & Novotny, 1990). A proactive approach including current knowledge about students who are at-risk and the interventions appropriate to effectively educate them is also necessary (Koff & Ward, 1990). Knowledge about current academic instructional practices, maltreatment issues, and socio-emotional aspects of students who are mildly handicapped is appropriate content material to teach professional educators to effectively teach students who are at-risk. Therefore, it is essential to provide professional educators with knowledge about abuse/neglect issues, innovative instructional methods, and socio-emotional components.

Providing students with this type of holistic curriculum requires a well trained professional staff. Creating the needed changes so all students benefit from instruction in the general education classroom also requires training. Kearney and Durand (1992) suggest that teacher preparation programs for general educators include coursework that is designed to instruct future teachers in the rationale, methods, and goals of mainstreaming. Helge (1991) suggests employing a holistic inservice/preservice approach to train educational professionals for treating students who are at-risk. The emotional, academic, physical, and social needs of the student and family are topics for this training (Helge 1991). Lessen and Frankiewicz (1992) acknowledge that teachers bring their own positive and negative attributes to the classroom, but they also believe that attributes of affect in teachers can be determined and subsequently trained.

Given that (a) at-risk students are increasing in number, (b) students qualifying for special education services are most often placed in the mainstream, (c) the at-risk population in the general education program is increasing, (d) general education professional personnel need and want training, and (e) training educators about abuse/neglect issues, instructional methods, and socio-emotional issues about students who are at-risk is important, then the following question arises. If positive attitudes of general educators involved with students who are at-risk is a desirable attribute, then does a holistic training program in socio-emotional aspects, instructional methods, and maltreatment issues help improve professional educators' attitudes toward mainstreamed students who are at-risk?

Method

The purpose of this study is to determine the effect of an increase in knowledge about academic instruction methods, socio-emotional aspects, and maltreatment issues for students who are at-risk on the attitudes of professional educators serving these students in the mainstream. Other questions posed during this study concern (a) the effect of the amount of years of experience an educator has on their attitudes toward students who are at-risk in the general education classroom, (b) the effect of the type of position an educator has (i.e., special education teacher, general education teacher, substitute teacher, ancillary personnel, or administrator) on their attitudes toward students who are at-risk in the general education classroom, (c) the effect of the grade level taught by an educator on their attitudes toward students who are at-risk in the general education classroom, and (d) the effect of the location and sequence of the coursework the educator received on their attitudes toward students who are at-risk in the general education classroom.

Participants for this study were professional educators enrolled in a graduate level course at two rural off-campus locations at an Eastern teacher preparation university. There were 39 participants; 36 completed all necessary forms, probes, and surveys as sources of data for the final analysis. All educators involved in the study were employees of local education agencies (LEA's). All LEA's represented are defined as rural school systems.

Pre and post data were collected in the areas of knowledge and attitudes. Participants completed a knowledge probe about instructional methodology, socio-emotional aspects, and abuse/neglect issues. The Regular Education Initiative Survey - Revised (REIS - R) (Semmel, Abernathy, & Butera, 1992) was used to collect pre and post data on the attitudes of educators of students who are at-risk. Each measure was administered six weeks before the course and again on the final class day immediately following completion of the course. Demographic data were collected about subjects' years of service, type of professional employment in education, grade level the educator serves, and the location where subjects attended the module classes. The variable years of service was coded to reflect two groups of subjects, those with less than five years of professional experience in education and those with five or more years of professional experience. The variable type of position was coded to into the three categories of regular education, special education, and substitute teacher. Included in the regular education group were professionals who were ancillary or administrative personnel.

The REIS - R (Semmel, et al. 1992) is a 50 item survey of statements, and respondents agree or disagree with the statements. Statements are positively stated so that agreement is a positive response and disagreement is a neutral or negative response. Responses are quantified by assigning one point when the respondent agrees to the statement and no points when the respondent disagrees with the statement. The total sum of points on the survey is used in the analysis.

A holistic approach including components of innovative instructional methods, abuse/neglect issues, and socio-emotional aspects was presented to increase the participants' knowledge base. The course was delivered in six full days (8 am until 4 pm) of instruction. There were three two day modules, one each on academic instruction, abuse/neglect issues, and socio-emotional aspects of students who are at-risk. The first module was presented on Monday and Tuesday; Wednesday was an off day. The second module was presented on Thursday and Friday, and the third module was presented on Monday and Tuesday of the following week. This delivery schedule gives participants a period of time to understand and then synthesize the information presented.

Results

To answer the questions posed, data were analyzed using the Statistical Analysis System, developed by Barr, Goodnight, Sall, and Helwig (1985). A mixed design was used which included one between subjects independent variable and one within subjects independent variable. In the first set of analyses, years of service (below five verses five or more years of service) was the between subjects variable. The within subjects variable was testing occasion (pre verses post).

Separate two-way analyses of variance were computed in which years of service, type of position held, grade level taught, and location of coursework were the between subject variables. The within subjects variable in each of these analyses was testing occasion (pre verses post). The dependent variables of knowledge of instruction, knowledge of abuse and neglect, knowledge of behavior, and total knowledge, yielded a significant increase $p < .001$ from pre to post measures in each of these analyses of variance. The attitude measure did not show a significant increase ($p > .05$). The means and standard deviations for the pre to post differences are reported in Table 1. The F values for the pre/post testing occasion in these analyses of variance were almost identical, as would be expected (e.g., F=17.15, 17.49, 17.69, and 17.96 for knowledge of instructional methods across the four between subjects variables, respectively).

The between subjects independent variables did not yield significant main effects except for grade level as measured on the knowledge of abuse and neglect dependent variable, $F(1,34)=4.30$, $p<.05$. Educators of secondary students had higher scores (M=6.80, SD=0.51) than educators of elementary students (M=6.52, SD=0.79). These analyses yielded two significant interactions of location of coursework by testing occasion on the dependent variables of knowledge of socio-emotional aspects $F(1,34)=6.15$, $p < .05$ and total knowledge $F(1,34)=6.50$, $p < .05$. These interactions are depicted in Figure 1 and Figure 2, respectively.

Table 1

Main Effects of Testing Occasion on Dependent Variables

Dependent Measures	Means	SD	Means	SD	alpha
	Pre		Post		
Knowledge of instruction	7.75	1.65	9.11	0.78	$p<.001$
Knowledge of abuse/neglect	6.33	0.72	7.06	0.23	$p<.001$
Knowledge of Socio-emotional	3.78	2.46	6.47	2.75	$p<.001$
Knowledge Total	17.86	3.53	22.67	2.83	$p<.001$
Attitude	25.78	3.55	26.61	4.28	ns

Discussion

Answers to the research questions were somewhat unexpected. Main effects of testing occasion pre verses post were determined significant for all between subjects variables. There was an increase in knowledge about the instructional, socio-emotional, and abuse/neglect issues surrounding teaching students who are at-risk in the mainstream. However, this training intervention did not create an increase in attitude of professional educators serving students who are at-risk. The course given as the intervention was responsible for the increase in total knowledge and knowledge about academic instruction, abuse/neglect issues, and socio-emotional aspects (see table 1) however, this did not cause the educators' attitudes toward students who are at risk to change.

Main effects of grade level were significantly higher for professional educators treating secondary students than those treating elementary students as measured on the abuse/neglect probe. Examination of certain demographic variables yielded significant interaction results. There were simple effects of the interaction of pre/post testing condition by coursework locations on both the socio-emotional and total knowledge dependent variable. In both of these interactions there was a greater rate of gain at one location than the other. Ostensibly, instruction was the same, but the sequence of module presentation was different at the two sites. Another difference between sites is that one site had a large group of novice teachers who exhibited lower knowledge pretest measures.

The study attempted to establish the efficacy of module-type coursework on the knowledge and attitude of inservice professional educators who are treating students who are at-risk. This was accomplished by taking pre-intervention measures on knowledge and attitude as well as demographic data regarding years of service, type of position, grade level, and location of the coursework. Post intervention data were collected on knowledge and attitude on the final class day immediately following the conclusion of the coursework. Significant increases in professional educators' knowledge resulting from instruction about education of students who are at-risk are indicated in this study. However, changes in attitudes as an result of increased knowledge about having students who are at-risk in the general education program are not indicated.

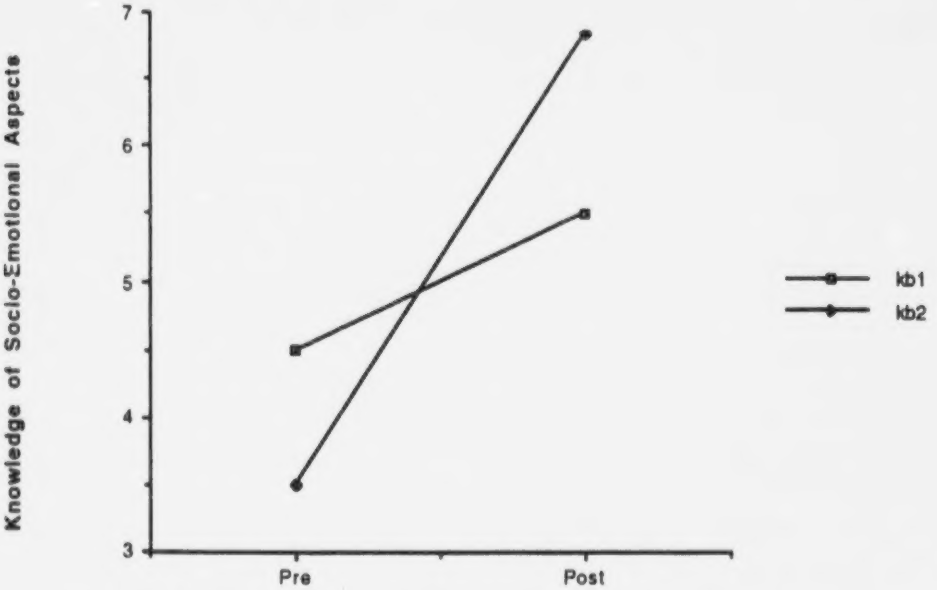

Figure 1. Interaction of (location 1 verses location 2) by pre/post testing occasion on knowledge of socio-emotional aspects.

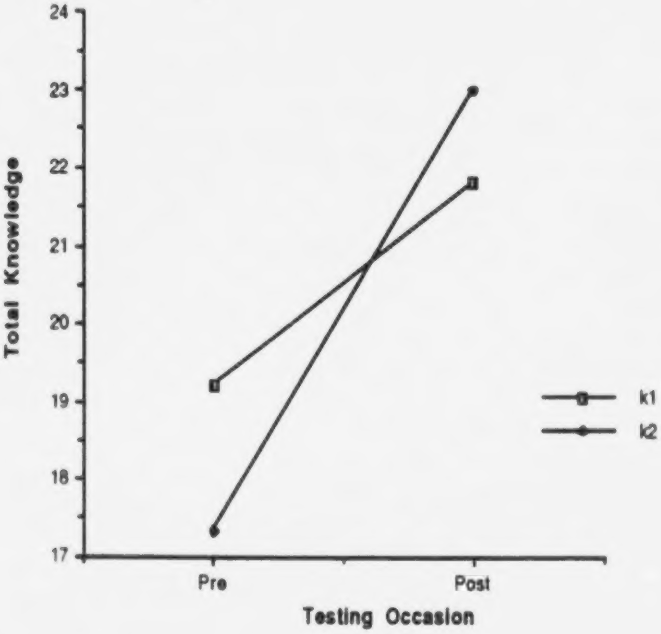

Figure 2. Interaction of (location 1 verses location 2) by pre/post testing occasion on total knowledge.

It was hypothesized that attitudes of professional educators toward students who are at-risk would increase due to their increase in knowledge about how to treat those students. This did not happen. Reasons for no significant attitude change could be attributed to several possibilities. First, an increase in knowledge due to a short-term intensive approach may not be as effective as a regular 15 week course where educators assimilate information and use it on the job. There is evidence that attitude change is difficult at best. Second, the participants do not have time to practice techniques and recognize successes in treating students who are at-risk. Third, the attribute of positive attitudes toward students who are at-risk is better taught to professional educators directly in a specific course. Fourth, the sequencing of the presentation of the knowledge base may have some confounding effects on the synthesis of the information. Lastly, perhaps some people should not be professional educators (Lesson, & Frankeiwicz, 1992).

Structure of future pursuit of this research agenda is as follows. Collect follow-up data examining knowledge maintenance and positive attitude development three to six months after the intervention. At that time the synthesis and use of skills learned by the educators in the current study may be more solidified. Adjust the sequence of presentation of the course modules examining all possible combinations while collecting the same data each time the course is taught. Recode the "years of experience" independent variable to identify novice teachers as zero to one year. If longitudinal data do not show significant changes in attitudes toward students who are at-risk, then addition to the course of an attitude development module might be warranted.

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Rural Gifted Education in a Multicultural Society

The purpose of this session is to discuss the philosophy and working plans for SPRING II (Special Populations Rural Information Network for the Gifted, second phase), a consortium consisting of multiple institutions (Indiana University, New Mexico State University, and Converse College). The project has as its major focus the identification and programming needed to meet the needs of culturally diverse populations of students who are gifted and not commonly identified for special educational programs in schools that serve them. Specifically, the procedures for identifying students who are Appalachian, African American, Hispanic, and native American Indian and attending rural schools will be discussed herein.

Background

The primary purpose of the consortium is to address the identification, programming, teacher training, and distance education needs specific to finding and educating rural gifted children from economically different and/or ethnically diverse backgrounds. The instrumentation developed through SPRING I for rural students from Appalachia who are gifted will be modified and evaluated within the context of three additional subpopulations of gifted rural youth: African American, Hispanic, and native American Indian. An expanded explanation of SPRING I can be found elsewhere in these proceedings.

To maintain the consistency and necessary articulation between identification and programming for gifted students, the curriculum for which students were identified was adapted to fit the strengths of the population identified. Methods and materials were developed in SPRING I and integrated among all content areas, but with a science educational focus. The unit specifically developed used a thematic study of water in an environmental science context. Much of the curriculum to be developed for SPRING II will be adapted, designed and delivered via distance technology. Although several pre-service and in-service teacher training activities combine with the development of student abilities as integral components of SPRING II, the current discussion will center on the identification of giftedness among economically and ethnically different groups of students.

Need for the Project

In their recent study on gifted identification policies of the states, Coleman and Gallagher (1992) found that the vast majority of states have written policies calling for the identification and provision of services to gifted students from special populations. In addition, a number of non-traditional approaches for identifying special populations of gifted children have been advanced in recent years (For identifying gifted Hispanic children, see Barkan and Bernal, 1991 and Zappia, 1989; for gifted African American children, see Frasier, 1989 and Patton, Prillamon, and VanTassell-Baska, 1990; for gifted Native American children, see Florey and Tafoya, 1988, Tonemah, 1987, and Montgomery, 1989; for gifted disadvantaged rural identification, see Spicker, 1992). Although it appears that state policy encourages the inclusion of all populations of gifted children in local educational efforts and information is available to local education agencies, the facts remains that students from economically and ethnically diverse cultures are under-represented in gifted programs. A comprehensive program linking the advice from the researchers to practical procedures within policy in various states will provide a model to resolve the problems facing LEAs as they attempt to better serve the educational needs of all gifted students.

The procedures already developed for identifying rural disadvantaged Appalachian gifted children are applicable for identifying white, rural, disadvantaged gifted children in New England, the Midwest, and the Northwest. Research is still needed to determine whether or not the same procedures will identify rural disadvantaged African American gifted children in the deep South, and rural Hispanic and Native American gifted children in the Southwest. Our identification efforts are, therefore, focused on South Carolina and New Mexico respectively. Parent and peer information, child products, teacher observations, as well as intelligence, achievement, and creativity test data will be collected from each site and analyzed for similarities and differences in characteristics of gifted children among the four rural diverse populations. These analyses will be used to develop procedures specific to the identification of gifted children from each rural ethnic group.

The results of the SPRING I project are reviewed elsewhere in this document with greater detail. Here, we will consider the major findings regarding identification strategies and the ways this information will be used to guide the assessment and identification efforts for each of the three subpopulations for SPRING II. Following a brief review of the identification procedures developed for Appalachian students will be a description of the concerns and preliminary plans for identification procedures for African American, Hispanic, and native American Indian students.

Rural Economically Disadvantaged Gifted Students

Table 1 represents the essential findings of SPRING I with Appalachian gifted children. The list draws a comparison between the characteristics of the typical, usually advantaged, dominant culture students who are found using the common intelligence and academic assessment measures with those characteristics of rural gifted children that mitigate against typical and obvious identification. It was found that there are certain characteristics that may be perceived as distractors to traditional assessment techniques, termed "Negative" for SPRING I, and other characteristics that may serve as unique strength areas, called "Positive."

The strength areas are used to construct nontraditional assessment procedures that would allow traits of giftedness to emerge. For example, a strength characteristics of rural gifted children is that they may demonstrate exceptional ability in one area with average ability in others rather than perform consistently well in several schools subjects. Another strength is that rural children are very likely to have interests outside the classroom. Often, the ability may be in mechanical areas or environmental sciences. Parents, teachers and other school personnel were trained to recognize such signs of ability (Spicker, 1992).

Table 2 represents the strategies tested during the identification phase of SPRING I. These will be adapted for each population, based on input from parents, teachers, students and community members.

TABLE [illegible]. Comparison of Characteristics

CHARACTERISTICS OF GIFTED STUDENTS

Advantaged Gifted Students Urban, middle class children who accept values of the dominant culture	**Disadvantaged Rural Gifted Children**
	NEGATIVE
1. Speak standard English	1. Speak a non-standard regional dialect
2. Are verbal and have good communication skills	2. Are less verbal in oral communication skills
3. Are active participants in classroom activities	3. Tend to be passive participants in classroom activities
4. Perform tasks within time limitations	4. Are relatively unaffected by time pressures; work slowly but meticulously
5. Complete classroom assignments and homework	5. Are likely to be lax in completing assignments and homework
6. Perform well on standardized tests	6. Are not likely to perform well on standardized tests
	POSITIVE
7. Perform well in all subjects	7. May show exceptional ability in one subject and average to below average in others
8. Produce written work in proper grammatical form with good spelling and legible handwriting	8. Have written products that may be of high quality in content but of poor quality in grammatical form, spelling, and handwriting
9. Demonstrate their strengths within the academic classroom	9. More likely to demonstrate their strengths outside the classroom, e.g. auto and tractor repair, knowledge specific to their rural environment, creativity related to 4-H projects, talent in music and the performing arts
10. Usually perform equally well on verbal and non-verbal tests.	10. Are likely to perform better on non-verbal than verbal tests.

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TABLE

Instruments Used For Assessment

Participant observation, including unstructured interviewing -

implementation of, and participation in inservice training, implementation of identification procedures, implementation of new curriculum, parent groups. Involves qualitative description of activities and involvement of participants, to be compared with descriptions of intended activities.

Semistructured interviewing, open ended questionnaires -

experts' and parents' views of identification procedures and materials and of new science curriculum and materials (formative assessment instruments to be developed specifically for these materials);

students', teachers', and parents' beliefs about individual students' abilities (modification of instruments used in Guskin, Zimmerman, Okolo, & Peng, 1986).

Structured interviews and questionnaires-

inservice training, satisfaction with identification, curriculum innovations (rating scales developed specifically to evaluate these materials and activities);

teachers' perceptions of the nature of giftedness and talent and their perceived relationship to rural, ethnic, and economic status (modification of instruments used in Guskin, Peng, & Simon, 1992).

Demographic indices -

Geographic setting (rural), ethnicity, economic status (e.g., participation in free lunch program); to be filled out by evaluation staff, based on school records.

Portfolio assessment -

Student products, including videotapes and project reports and/or materials resulting from the new curriculum will be collected and described by students; these will then be assessed by multiple judges, based on criteria related to the curriculum and to definitions of creativity, giftedness, and talent. These procedures are currently being piloted in Project SPRING.

Standardized tests, grades -

Although not a primary data source, this information will be obtained from records for descriptive purposes.

Torrance Tests of Creative Thinking (Streamlined Form).

Includes items involving verbal and nonverbal fluency and originality, as well as nonverbal flexibility and originality (Torrance, Wu, and Ando, 1980). This instrument will be used largely for descriptive purposes.

The philosophy that will be maintained is the goal to identify the ability areas that are valued by those groups involved and invite students to demonstrate their strength areas in appropriate curricular areas.

A particularly valuable component of SPRING I was the curriculum which was planned to be congruent with the identification procedures. The study of water was developed as an integrated theme maximizing students' strengths of ecological, environmental and mechanical knowledge and skills. It is anticipated that many of these areas of study will be applicable to other rural gifted populations underserved in schools, although behaviors or skills may be manifested in different ways.

This framework of understanding will lead the work that will be done in identification procedures at each of the schools in the consortium. The Hispanic and native American Indian populations will be explored in New Mexico and the African American population will be investigated at three school sites in South Carolina.

African American Gifted Students

Table 3 represents potential characteristics of rural African American children in response to the SPRING model of differences (from dominant, economic culture), detractors (areas that have previously been considered negative), and focus strength areas of the particular children in the population (to be determined in detail in the field study).

In South Carolina, prior to the state's Education Improvement Act in 1984, each school district set its own identification criteria for admission to academically gifted programs and few African American children were identified. In 1984 a comprehensive statewide identification system was implemented. This system is more inclusive, identifying more African American children than were previously included; however, the present identification system relies heavily on standardized achievement and aptitude tests. As a result, in most districts, regardless of the percent of African American children in the school age population, only five to ten percent of the children in the academically gifted program are African Americans.

Hispanic Gifted Students

Hispanics are the fastest growing minority in the United States. Indeed, in some areas or states they comprise a majority of the population; therefore, the choice of New Mexico to learn more about the application of various alternative identification methods and procedure seems logical. The national origins of Hispanic students varies widely. With the choice of public school close to the Mexican border, there is greater chances for the population to be somewhat similar (as compared to Puerto Rican, Latino, Spanish American, etc.).

Like other students from ethnically diverse backgrounds, the Hispanic gifted student comes from a family with a different value system and behavior patterns (Leung, 1981). Often, parents do not have the same academic preparation as parents of students from the economic culture. Hispanic children are most likely bilingual with Spanish spoken in the home. Banda (1989) recommends strategies to maximize the cultural strengths of gifted Hispanic children in identification procedures. She suggests leadership ability, bilingualism and individual student profiles may be helpful in discovering giftedness among Hispanic students.

It is anticipated that the rural Hispanic students will know Spanish, many of them speaking it in their homes. There may be a high level of local community involvement for school athletic events, church

Table 3 Characteristics of Gifted Students

Advantaged Gifted Children (urban/suburban, middle class children who accept values of the dominant culture)	Disadvantaged Rural African American Children
Differences	
Speak standard English	1. Often use non-standard English with standard English as a second language (Cohen, 1989)
2. Are verbal and have good oral communication skills	2. Oral traditional with language rich in imagery and humor (Baldwin, 1989)
3. Are active participants in classroom activities	3. Often defensive and/or withdrawn in school setting (Rhodes, 1992) and prefer kinesthetic style of learning (Ewing & Yong, 1992)
4. Perform tasks within time limitation	4. Use approximate time instead of accurate time (Hillard, 1976)
5. Complete classroom assignment and homework	5. School motivation and performance are lower than Anglo American children (Sparling, 1989)
6. Perform well on standardized tests	6. As a group African American children do not perform well on standardized measures (Hadaway & Mark-Schroer, 1992)
7. Perform well in all subjects	7. Perform well outside of academic setting in ability to manipulate two cultures (Ford, 1992), social intelligence and feeling of responsibility for community (Horowitz & O'Brien, 1985)
8. Produce written work in proper grammatical form with good spelling and legible handwriting	8. Responsiveness to concrete, ability to improvise with common materials, and problem solving orientation (Torrance, 1989) rather than high verbal skills in writing
9. Demonstrate their strengths within the academic classroom	9. May demonstrate strengths outside the class in eye-hand coordination, skilled body movement, physical stamina (Horowitz & O'Brien, 1985)
10. Usually perform equally well on verbal and non-verbal tests	10. Perform better on non-verbal measures (Frasier, 1989)

celebrations, large family gatherings for traditional holidays or local political campaigns. These events may provide information about cultural beliefs of exceptional ability. The family will need to play an important role in the identification of abilities expressed outside of the classroom.

New Mexico will present an interesting policy difference with services for gifted students categorized as a special education program. Although given special permission by the State Department of Education to study an experimental program, the procedures established will need to be evaluated in the context of long-term consequences for students, teachers and other school personnel and parents.

Native American Indian Gifted Students

With hundreds of Indian tribes, some not yet formally recognized by the United States government, the description of giftedness among rural youngsters is particularly problematic. Seen as separate governmental entities, tribes become an institution as well as a community from which to solicit information about cultural giftedness. The tribe chosen to work with in New Mexico is the Mescalero Apache, a particularly autonomous and self reliant group of Native Americans. It is believed, however, if a model procedure will work with a public school district that serves a Native American community with few Native American teachers on faculty (an occurrence that is common in public schools with large concentrations of Indian students), then perhaps some of the procedures could be useful in situations where there is a more flexible boundary between the tribe and the dominant or economic culture.

Indian children are diverse in nature. Some may live with their families and extended families on and off the reservation (Little Soldier, 1985; Tippiconnic, 1990) and may likely attend public schools as well as Bureau of Indian Affairs (BIA) schools or tribally controlled schools. Additionally, there is great diversity of acculturation, from very traditionally tribal to Native Americans who are more closely identified with the economic or dominant culture. Little Soldier (1985) suggested this continuum was represented by the span in the middle with those Indians who were bicultural; whereas the people at either end of the continuum are monocultural either representing Native American or Euro American. Faas (1982) found three distinct cultural groups of Native Americans, each with a different opinion about giftedness depending on the degree of tribal traditionalism represented by the group.

Native Americans also differ from tribe to tribe in custom, belief, values and social practice (Locust, 1988; Noley, 1989). Finding common elements or beliefs about giftedness that can be said to be "Indian" may not be as useful as it is controversial. Therefore, our procedures will focus on the values, world view, cognitive structures, stories and metaphors that are used to describe exceptional ability among one tribe of people represented by those attending public school on the reservation.

A vast amount of time will be invested in the tribal community. Finding acceptance through one or two informants, we will be using elders, community leaders, storytellers and medicine people to collect information about attitudes of exceptional ability, learning and school. The tribal language(s) will be assessed for its usage among youngsters and its structure for describing exceptional ability.

Equipped with some preliminary information about tribal beliefs, teachers will be informed of ways to weave student strengths into a thematic curriculum. It is likely that an ecological theme would be appropriate and would match well with students identified for SPRING II in Indiana or South Carolina. Additionally, after students are identified and placed in special programs, community members and parents must be invited to continue their involvement. The role of mentors, models and adult tribal teachers may be a cultural value upon which to built program services and evaluation. It is apparent that shared responsibility for the education of the gifted will lead to a successful program.

Summary

It has been well documented that economically disadvantaged and ethnically diverse children are underrepresented in programs for the academically gifted. Project SPRING II plans to implement identification and programming procedures to determine successful methods to increase the involvement of these groups in school programs for students who are gifted. Flexibility and adaptability will be the key approaches as each identification program is planned and implemented with school personnel, families and community members.

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THE WHO, WHAT, WHERE, AND WHY OF ALTERNATIVE CERTIFICATION PROGRAMS IN SPECIAL EDUCATION

Introduction

The implementation of educational programs in the nation's schools following the enactment of P.L. 94-142 in 1975 has created a continuing need for educators trained and certified in special education. The rapid and steady growth of those programs, moreover, has exceeded the capability of teacher training programs at colleges and universities to prepare educational personnel (Geiger, 1988; McLaughlin, Smith-Davis, & Burke, 1986; United States Department of Education, 1991). In addition, a consistently high attrition rate of special educators (especially in rural areas) has left many positions unfilled or filled by untrained teachers working on temporary, emergency certificates (Helge & Marrs, 1982; Lauritzen, 1988; Smith-Davis, Burke, & Noel, 1984; Sontag & Button, 1980). The combined effect of these problems has been to create a situation where the supply of special educators is not sufficient to meet the present and predicted future demand. The unavailability of appropriately trained and certified educational personnel poses a serious threat to the quality of special education services for students with disabilities across the country.

The urgent need to train additional special education teachers has resulted in a variety of initiatives by state agencies as well as the federal government to create additional training programs, to simplify certification requirements, and to devise alternative methods for the preparation of teaching personnel. Alternative certification programs have been established by many states according to either of two models: (1) emergency certificates permitting individuals to enter teaching positions without training, but specifying that they must complete all traditional certification requirements by a specific deadline; and (2) alternative routes to certification permitting individuals to enter teaching positions without training, and allowing them to complete modified, minimal certification requirements in a nontraditional program (Baird, 1990; Graham, 1988; Oliver & McKibbin, 1985). Such alternative routes to certification have raised serious issues about the qualifications of teachers trained by short-cut methods, as well as the quality of services they are able to provide to students with disabilities (Case, Lanier, & Maskel, 1986; Corrigan & Haberman, 1990; Hawley, 1990). Although highly touted as the answer to the supply-demand imbalance of special education teaching personnel, alternative certification models, to date, have not produced conclusive and convincing evidence of their effectiveness.

While it is certain that a variety of alternative certification models exist, because they have been described at professional meetings and in the literature, the number, location, and features of existing models is at present unclear. Different authors have reported conflicting information (Adelman, et al., 1986; American Association of Colleges of Teacher Education, 1990; Baird, 1989; Council of Chief State School Officers, 1988; Darling-Hammond, 1988; Feistritzer, 1990; Graham, 1989), while several surveys have produced inconclusive results because respondents confused alternative with emergency certification (CSPD Caucus, 1988; Office of Planning and Evaluation Services, 1988). And, the number of alternative certification models that actually involve special education is even more uncertain (Smith-Davis, 1989). Ludlow and Bloom (1989) reported that only nine states had approved or were considering the adoption of an alternative certification model in special education. Accurate information about the nature and form of these alternative certification models is needed to determine their applicability to other states.

To date, there has been practically no research reported investigating the effects of alternative certification models, or their impact on schooling or students. The existing literature has described the features of such models (Darling-Hammond, Hudson & Kirby, 1989; McKibbin, 1988; Shotel, 1989), but has failed to report data on the proficiency of teachers prepared by alternative certification programs, their subsequent employment and retention probabilities, or their impact on services to students. And, no data is currently available that evaluates the effectiveness of alternative certification models in preparing special educators (Hawley, 1990; Roth & Pipho, 1990; Smith-Davis, 1989). Such research is clearly needed, both by policymakers and by practitioners.

The controversy surrounding alternative certification in special education demands an immediate and serious research effort. Research is needed to determine the appropriateness of alternative certification training models in preparing special educators to deliver quality educational programming to students with disabilities (Geiger & Smith-Davis, 1989; Hawley, 1990), as well as their effectiveness in addressing the critical teacher shortages by increasing the pool of available teachers and reducing the turnover and retention problems (Smith-Davis, 1989). Proponents of alternative certification have asserted that such models encourage talented people from other fields to enter teaching (Cornett, 1988; Rowe, 1985) and increase the potential supply of teachers available to reduce shortages (Ross & Pipho, 1990; Roth & Lutz, 1986), and that traditional teacher education programs have little substance or value in preparing teachers (Sikula & Roth, 1984) while alternative models provide intensive training and supervision focused on critical skills needed for successful teaching (Baird, 1990; Dill, 1990). Opponents, on the other hand, have argued that alternative certification models fail to insure adequate standards of professional training (American Association of Colleges of Teacher Education, 1985), contradict current trends to professionalize teacher preparation to achieve educational excellence (Darling-Hammond, 1984), and attract prospective teachers who are less qualified than many teacher trainees (Olsen, 1985) . Research must be designed to investigate whether alternative certification models achieve desired effects without sacrificing quality.

The study of alternative certification models has many implications for practice in teachereducation in special education. Recent calls for reform in teacher education have stressed the need for longer, more rigorous programs of study (Carnegie Task Force, 1986; Holmes Group, 1986). As a result, the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) and the Council for Exceptional Children (CEC) adopted Standards and Guidelines for Curriculum Excellence in Personnel Preparation in Special Education to serve as minimum standards for the field (Council for Exceptional Children, 1987). Some authors have even argued for national standards of teacher certification in special education to insure quality educational programs for students with disabilities that are equivalent across the country (Gabrys, 1989; Heller, 1983; Reynolds, 1990; Strosnider & Little, 1988). Alternative certification models in special education run counter to these trends; thus, they have many implications for the development of new teacher training programs, as well as the modification of existing ones.

The study of alternative certification models also has significant implications for the development of educational policy. Both state and federal agencies could make use of the proposed research findings existing on alternative certification models to drive future policy statements (Roth & Lutz, 1986). State educational agencies are faced with the challenge of obtaining certified teachers who are appropriately trained and qualified to teach in a time- and cost -efficient manner. The federal government needs information to insure a wise investment of its resources in providing financial incentives to programs designed to address teacher shortages in special education, without impairing the quality of services to students with disabilities. The results of research on alternative certification in special education, therefore, would be useful to state and federal decision makers for the development, implementation, and evaluation of special education and teacher education policies.

Research Design

This research project used a two-phase, six-step design based upon Babbie's (1973) elaboration model of survey analysis, to collect, analyze, and interpret data on alternative certification models in special education. In the initial Descriptive Phase, the investigators searched the literature, surveyed authorities in the field, and interviewed personnel at existing training projects and used this data to describe the current status of alternative certification. During the subsequent Analysis Phase, the investigators will evaluate the effects of existing projects, compare existing projects with one another and with traditional teacher education program standards, and analyze local, state, and federal policies to determine the implications of alternative certification for policy and practice in special education. All procedures were developed and implemented in accordance with established guidelines for designing and analyzing survey research (Babbie, 1975; Borg & Gall, 1983; Weisberg & Bowen, 1977). The six-step model that will be used to guide the research project through these two phases is illustrated in Figure 1 and described in detail below.

Step I: Review of the Literature

The investigators reviewed all relevant professional literature to identify the questions and issues that have been raised in the field about alternative certification in relation to teacher education as well as in relation to the quality of special education programs provided to students with disabilities, in order to develop a measurement instrument to collect information from existing alternative certification models. In addition, they reviewed literature on program evaluation to construct procedures for analyzing the effectiveness and efficiency of alternative certification models to be used during the data collection and analysis phases. They also collected information on personnel recruitment and retention in special education, the impact of adult career changes, and historical trends in personnel development to provide background for interpreting the findings of this research project.

Step II: Field Validation Of Critical Factors/Questions

Using information obtained during the review of literature, the investigators generated a list of factors/questions to be addressed in determining the quality, effectiveness, and efficiency of alternative certification models in preparing special educators. They designed a questionnaire to allow individuals in the field to validate the list by rating which factors/questions they felt are most important in evaluating alternative certification models. The field validation was conducted by mail with individuals representing different groups concerned with the certification of teachers. School administrator perspectives were solicited from special education directors in each state's educational agency, and from officials in the National Association of State Directors of Special Education, the Council of Administrators in Special Education of the Council for Exceptional Children, and the Clearinghouse on Professions in Special Education, from department chairs at colleges and universities with special education programs, from members of The Higher Education Consortium on Special Education, and members of the Teacher Education Division of the Council for Exceptional Children. And, the perspective of professional education organizations was solicited from the National Education Association, the Association of Teacher Educators, and the American Association of Colleges of Teacher Education. The investigators usde the input from all groups to select the factors/questions identified by the majority of respondents for use in designing research instruments and procedures.

Step III: Description of Existing Models

The investigators identified all existing alternative certification models in special education by reviewing reports issued by state and federal agencies and professional education organizations). They used the field validation data collected in Step II to design a questionnaire to elicit data to describe fully the critical features of all existing models as well as to gather data on the rationale for alternative certification, the service delivery system for training (including participants, trainers, location, and duration), the components of the model, and any effects/results to date. The investigators also contacted model personnel by telephone to obtain additional or missing information, where needed. These data were used to prepare a directory of existing models with complete descriptive and contact information, that also served as the initial pool of data to be used in selecting models for indepth study.

Step IV: Data Collection/Selected Models

The investigators prepared for and conducted on-site reviews at two selected sites. These models were chosen on the basis of the following criteria: representativeness, completeness of data, and length of operation. Based on resultant data from Step II and Step III activities, the investigators designed an instrument and procedure to be followed in conducting the on-site investigations using qualitative research methodology (Marshall & RossmAn, 1989; Stainback & Stainback. 1989). The investigators have made an on-site review to observe each model in operation, and to obtain data from model organizers, staff, and participants, using extensive field notes to record observations and interview comments. Appropriate procedures were followed in seeking permission/approval to conduct on-site investigations and gain access to test scores and available/ evalauation data.

Step V Comparative Analysis/Selected Models

Using the information on evaluating the effectiveness and efficiency of training programs gathered in Step I, the investigators will develop a framework for comparing the effects and impacts of selected alternative certification models with each other as well as with standards for traditional teacher education programs. They then will organize a peer review team, consisting of the two (2) co-principal investigators and three (3) external consultants; one consultant will have expertise in teacher education in special education, another will have expertise in state special education certification policies, and a third will have expertise in professional organization certification policies in special education. The peer review team will use the developed framework to review the data from the three (3) existing alternative certification models gathered in Step II and Step IV in order to make comparisons between models and with traditional certification programs

Step VI: Policy Analysis

The investigators will analyze policies related to alternative certification identified through the review of literature in Step I, as well as the data products resulting from Step III and Step activities. The focus will be to determine the implications of the results of this research, as embodied in the analyses conducted in Step V, for policy development at the state and national levels. Policy analysis involves a study of the policy-making process: how policies are adopted, which policies are related, and what effects policies have on social institutions and problems (Dye, 1978; Majchrzak, 1984). The policy analysis related to alternative certification in this project will consist of a description of the historical events and decisions that resulted in policy implementation, a comparison of the similarities and differences of various policies in different states, an analysis of the relationship.

Project Findings

To date this research project has produced the following results:

1. validation of critical features in assessing the effectiveness of alternative certification programs in special education;
2. identification of those states with policies that specifically permit alternative certification programs in special education;
3. identification of individual programs sponsored by colleges/universities, school systems, or regional educational service agencies that provide alternative certification programs in special education to area teachers;
4. observation of and collection of data from two programs (one in California and one in Texas) in alternative certification in special education that have been operating for at least five (5) consecutive years; and
5. preliminary analysis of data and statement of implications for teacher education and certification in special education.

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FINDING AND KEEPING THE BEST:
Three Years of Progress in Recruiting & Retaining Special Education Teachers

Since Fall 1989, California State University, Chico, (CSU, Chico) in collaboration with school districts in its 33,000 square mile service area, has successfully directed an internship program that recruits, prepares and supports special education teachers in northeastern California.

The program was designed to alleviate the area's critical special education personnel shortage. This on-the-job training program encourages interns to complete a Learning Handicapped Specialist credential while they teach and live in their rural communities. To date, fifty-one candidates have received stipends, thirty-five of whom have earned their Learning Handicapped Specialist credentials and continue to teach in Northeastern California. An additional one hundred "non-stipend" special education credential candidates have completed the program. During 1992-93, twenty candidates received stipends to pursue their coursework to attain Learning Handicapped Specialist credentials while they too teach and live in their rural communities.

THE PROGRAM

This two year alternative special education credential program consists of:

- The recruitment of qualified candidates from among successful regular classroom teachers, re-entry students, and graduates of the basic credential program.
- On-the-job training of candidates working on their Learning Handicapped Specialist Credential.
- A full week preservice orientation on the CSU, Chico campus.
- The pairing of each intern with a mentor teacher, trained to observe the intern and provide local support.
- Coursework throughout the year delivered over instructional television to locations in the candidate's local counties.
- Release time to attend training and support sessions, and to observe other special education teachers in their classrooms, and
- Observation, supervision, and support provided by University faculty and supervisors.

FINDINGS TO DATE

Between September 1, 1989, and August 31, 1992, fifty-one candidates participated in *Finding and Keeping the Best,* the alternative credential program designed to recruit, train and support quality candidates to teach in special education classrooms in twelve rural and isolated northeastern California counties. Throughout the three years of operation, the program and its course offerings were evaluated. The results were utilized to make improvements in the overall program, individual courses, and evaluation instruments. The evaluations assisted program personnel in understanding how better to meet the needs of the candidates and areas served.

Evaluation questionnaires were administered to all course enrollees and analyzed by program and advisory personnel throughout the three years of program operations. Findings related to the three major program objectives follow --

Objective 1: Reduce the severe and long-standing shortage of fully and appropriately trained teachers of the learning handicapped.

Over three years, fifty-one interns have been recruited through joint University-public school efforts, to become a part of the Special Education Internship Program. Qualified candidates were sought from successful regular classroom teachers, re-entry students, and graduates of the basic credential program. Regular classroom experience with mainstreamed exceptional children was particularly valued in applicants. To maximize the chances of their long-term commitment to the rural regions, qualified residents of these areas were recruited. As of August 1992, thirty-five fully credentialed special education teachers have emerged from this two-year internship program and are currently teaching in rural northern California. An additional thirty-seven special education positions are filled by qualified individuals who are working toward the credential through on-the-job training and support. These positions were previously filled by short-term emergency credential holders, with little or no training in special education.

As credentialed teachers have emerged from the program and the number of qualified individuals teaching as interns has increased, the number of special education teachers teaching on emergency credentials has significantly decreased. In the late 1980's, when this program began, university program faculty were required to supervise over thirty emergency credentialed teachers, and by 1992, that number was down to fourteen. Long-term substitute teachers once prevalent are now almost non-existent in the CSU, Chico service area.

RECRUITMENT

Quality recruitment is the first step in reducing the severe and long-standing shortage of fully and appropriately trained teachers of the learning handicapped. Selecting qualified candidates with experience and commitment to the population to be served, and who will continue to teach in the area was the primary objective.

On an average, interns recruited to receive stipends entered the internship program with more teaching experience than the typical special education emergency credential trainee. In the three years, interns entered the program with over five years of regular classroom experience (range: 0 to 25 years) and over two years of special education classroom experience. In each succeeding year, the number of years of regular education experience of enrollees has increased, from a little over three years in 1989, to almost seven years in 1991, indicating that more seasoned teachers are being attracted to the program. Regular special education students during these three years maintained an average of three years of regular education teaching experience (range: 0 to 12 years).

RETENTION

Commitment to the profession and reasons for entering the profession are significant indicators of those who will remain in the profession. On a zero to seven point scale, with zero signifying no commitment and seven signifying extreme commitment, the average intern showed a very strong commitment to teaching special education children, with an average response of 6.2 on a seven point scale.

When asked why they chose to become special education teachers, the reasons given support the interns' internal commitment level. The top four reasons were:

#1 Personally satisfying job
#2 Like to make a difference in children's lives
#3 Opportunity to help young people with disabilities
#4 Opportunity to see growth in individual students

Incentives In order to further understand the interns' level of commitment to the profession and to special education children, interns were asked about incentives. Specifically they were asked how much the stipend, release time, the opportunity to work on a Masters Degree, and the support to be provided in the internship program were incentives for entering the special education profession. On a zero to seven point scale (*not at all* to *a great deal*), interns indicated that none of these really made a difference to them (Range: 2.7 to 4.1). The main incentive for entering the profession was written in as "an other" by approximately 80% of the intern population -- *the opportunity to work and make a difference with this population of kids so they will have a shot at success in life!* The results of the question follow:

Stipend	*2.7*
Release Time	*3.5*
Masters	*3.5*
Support	*4.1*
Other	*6.0*

Interns indicated an internal motivator was their main incentive to entering the profession. One-third of the interns indicated, however, that if this program had not been available, they would neither have entered, nor been able to enter a special education credential program.

Satisfying First Year The satisfaction experienced in their first year of teaching, is an indicator of longevity in teaching. All interns completing the program in 1992 indicated that they were highly satisfied with teaching in special education, even though one-third indicated that teaching special education was different from what they expected.

Expected Number of Years of Teaching Almost 90% of the "Finding and Keeping" interns responded that they expected to remain in the profession until their retirements.

Projections Even though *Finding and Keeping the Best* has increased the number of qualified individuals to teach the learning handicapped in northeastern California, the program must continue to produce qualified individuals in order to meet the projected need for teachers of the learning handicapped in the next five years. The twelve northeastern counties served by this program project that they will need three hundred twenty-two new teachers of the learning handicapped by 1996 (47 in 1992-93; 51 in 1993-94; 61 in 1994-95; and 70 in 1995-96) to meet the needs of the increasing learning handicapped population.)

OBJECTIVE 2: Provide program offerings to serve better the needs of the special educator.

Providing a quality program that meets the needs of the special educator is a major key to reducing the severe and long-standing shortage of fully and appropriately trained teachers of the learning handicapped in northeastern California.

By providing coursework to interns as they are learning on the job, combined with the support and observation of local mentor teachers linked to the University supervision, *Finding and Keeping the Best* has proven how to meet the needs of its interns.

PROGRAM OFFERINGS

Because some interns live up to six hours away from campus, various modes of delivery have been instituted to improve the accessibility of coursework. Delivery modes included interactive televised instruction, use of a northern regional training site for evening classes, week day sessions on release days, weekend courses in three regional sites, and summer sessions.

In August, 1990, the first summer preservice session was held with new interns selected for the 1990-91 program. The pre-employment orientation consisted of three days and evenings of training that focused on "intern survival skills." The orientation successfully built a cadre of interns, motivated their early success, and equipped them with beginning knowledge of handicapping conditions, classroom management, legal requirements of IEPs and initial instructional planning. As the orientation concluded, interns began to work with their University and local supporting teachers, thus initiating the link to on-the-job supervision and support structures.

LOCAL SUPPORT, SUPERVISION AND OBSERVATION

Currently practicing special education teachers, professionals experiencing similar conditions in their classrooms, were trained to mentor and to assist with the training of the interns. Additionally the mentoring component of the program gave experienced teachers a career ladder and a boost in their professional careers.

Interns were asked what kind of assistance they expected to receive from their mentor teachers as they began the program. Consistently, the interns expected mentor teachers to provide assistance in the rank order shown in Table 3.

Table 3
Rank Order and Percentage of Responses to
Expected Support from Mentor Teachers

Rank	% Responses	Expectations for Support
1	93	Observation and provide feedback
2	83	Provide guidance
3	80	Assist with curriculum issues
3	80	Provide friendship
5	70	Assistance with required, legal paperwork
5	70	Support
7	67	Role Model
8	50	Assistance with classroom management
9	47	School's and district's procedures

Once they were in the program receiving support from their mentor teachers, interns were asked in what ways the mentors were in fact most helpful. Results appear in Table 4, on the next page.

Table 4
Rank Order and Percentage of Responses to
Mentor Teacher Helpfulness

Rank	% Responses	Helpfulness of Mentor Teachers
1	87	Friendship
2	67	Support
3	63	Observation and feedback
4	60	Guidance
5	47	Role Model
5	47	School's and district's procedures
7	43	Assist with curriculum issues
8	37	Assistance with required, legal paperwork
9	27	Assistance with classroom management

In addition to their assigned mentor teachers, interns sought support from other special education teachers, experienced teachers, their principals, district and county program specialists, and fellow interns. Almost half of the interns sought assistance when they needed it between 76 and 100% of the time in their first few months. Thirty-seven percent of the interns sought assistance less than half of the time they needed it in their first few months.

University Supervision University supervisors have worked diligently to link their supervision to the instruction and field support through regular feedback sessions of candidates, and local support teachers, a program that meets the needs of the interns has evolved.

Overall Program Effectiveness Throughout the program, interns were asked to provide feedback on program effectiveness. The most recent effectiveness ratings appear in Table 5. (The scale: O to 7; 0 = not all effective, and 7 = extremely effective.)

Table 5
Interns' Ratings of Overall Effectiveness of the
1991-92 Special Education Internship Program

	First Year	End of Program
overall	5.62	5.93
in building your confidence in teaching	5.31	6.07
in providing you with the skills to become an effective special education classroom teacher	5.50	5.60
in providing instruction to meet the special needs of your classroom	5.62	4.92
in providing a support structure for you	6.08	6.00
in providing you with quality university instructors	5.77	5.71
in providing you with quality university supervisors	5.85	5.93

OBJECTIVE 3: Greatly reduce the personal, professional and geographic hardships of obtaining a special education credential.

Support at both the local and university levels, the summer and Saturday coursework, and the interactive televised instruction have served to reduce the personal, professional and geographic hardships of obtaining a special education credential in northeastern California. Over one-third of the interns indicated in the program evaluation that they never could have obtained a special education credential under the traditional structure that would have required them to attend courses on the CSU, Chico campus. According to the special education interns, the special attention to and support for the needs of rural teachers was one of the main factors that led them to enroll in *Finding and Keeping the Best.*

The California State University, Chico special education internship program has greatly reduced the feelings of hardship and isolation that once dominated the thoughts of credential candidates, and that at one time kept them from pursuing specialist credentials.

Interns stated that the most satisfying aspect of the program was the friendships that developed and the collaboration with the other interns -- they always felt there was someone to talk with who knew exactly what they were experiencing. The number two most satisfying aspect of the special education internship program was a related response. The interns appreciated the support of their local supervisors and university instructors. With support everywhere they turned, they knew they could always find someone to talk with about any problem or concern they were having. They particularly liked writing in their journals and receiving feedback from the instructor within three days. The interns always felt supported, encouraged and motivated to produce quality in their classrooms.

In general comments, the interns acknowledged the program for providing prompt assistance with the "usual hassles" of working with a University. These University hassles often keep students from enrolling in programs -- no one wants to fight the bureaucracy, especially from long distance. The Graduate school and the special education program worked with the interns to enroll and register the total group, greatly reducing one large, personal, professional, and geographic hardship for the interns. For this and all other aspects of the program, the interns are grateful.

SUMMARY

Finding and Keeping the Best has made significant accomplishments in its first three years of operation. Program administrators studied the needs of their service area and found that qualified special education teachers were sorely needed. With the help of the special education administrators and professionals already serving in the area, they were able to collaboratively design a program that would meet the personal, professional and intellectual needs of the soon-to-be special education teachers, the students that were typically being taught by individuals without special training, and the special education teachers already serving in these areas.

This program with its combination of superb local mentoring, outstanding support and instruction from university instructors has proven that it is not only possible to meet the needs of special education teachers in isolated, rural areas, it is as beneficial to the university as it is to the service area. With the win-win-win approach, the program will always be in demand.

J. Casey Hurley, Assistant Professor
Western Carolina University

Become a Principal? You Must Be Kidding

Study Purpose

Shortly before I began collecting data for this study, a friend of mine asked me what I was researching. When I told her that I wanted to find out why teachers either did or did not aspire to the principalship, she said, "That's a stupid study." She is a hospital administrator, and she assumed that teachers would aspire to become principals, just like health administrators aspire to become the hospital CEO.

But do the majority of teachers aspire to become principals? Are the right ones aspiring to become principals? If not, what are the conditions of principals' work which discourage teachers from seeking this vital school leadership role? This final question was explored with 25 rural teachers who were identified by their peers as having principal potential.

Recent research on the principalship has identified the professional skills and qualities of effective school leaders. Known as the "effective principal" research, these studies have found that, among other things, our best principals are able to effectively solve problems, make decisions, communicate, and build positive school climates. Furthermore, these principals are visionary, proactive, and able to manage stress.

Although this line of research has improved our understanding of the skills and qualities of effective school leaders, the underlying assumption of these studies is that ineffective school leadership is due to the inadequacies of the individuals in the principal's office. Because we have not critically examined this assumption, we have plenty of reports, articles, books, and even a national principals' professional development program (the LEAD program), which have focused almost exclusively on the skills identified above. But we have few other ideas for improving school leadership. The most recent suggestions for improving school leadership are found in "Principals for our Changing Schools" (Thomson, 1993), which expands the 12-skill emphasis to one which is based on 21 domains--those that are functional, programmatic, interpersonal, and contextual. The focus is the same, however, and so is the underlying assumption. Perhaps one of the reasons we have principals with poor skills is that highly skilled individuals choose not to seek the principalship.

Although efforts to improve school leadership by improving the skills and characteristics of the individuals in the principal's office is logical and straightforward, its underlying assumption--that ineffective school leadership is due to the inadequacies of the individuals in the principal's office--has obscured other ways to improve school leadership. Just as focusing a camera on the foreground blurs the background, focusing on the inadequacy of principals' skills and qualities blurs questions about the norms and expectations which surround the work of the principal. This study, instead of focusing the lens on the inadequacies of practicing and aspiring principals, asks potentially effective principals to explain their perspectives on the role norms, expectations, and work conditions that confront rural principals. Instead of assuming that schools are poorly led because of inadequately skilled principals, this study assumes that ineffective school leadership is also closely related to the way the principalship is defined and to the norms and expectations which have grown up around the role.

A recent report by the New York State School Board's Association recommended restructuring the principal's role (New York School Boards Association, 1988). Among other things the report recommended a team approach to school leadership, more principal autonomy, and more communication between school board members and principals. Little empirical research, however, was cited to support these recommendations. So, although the spirit of the New York report was in sympathy with the plight of the principal, unless educational researchers provide data which both substantiates the need to redefine the principal's role and suggests ways to improve school leadership, it is unlikely that any recommendations of the kind in the New York report will be implemented, much less sustained over time. The purpose of this study is to provide data which suggests how we ought to redefine school leadership roles.

There are two reasons why, especially in rural schools, we need to ask more questions about the way the principal's role is defined. First, the scope of the rural principal's role is too great. We need to ask if it is reasonable to expect the rural principal to be the head disciplinarian, instructional leader, manager of the business and facility operations, and link to the community, when urban and suburban principals have assistant principals and central office personnel who accept many of these responsibilities. Regardless of school size, principals deal with curriculum issues in each discipline and in each grade level. Furthermore, the number of extra-curricular programs is almost as great in small schools as in large ones. In other words, in relation to urban and suburban principals, the scope of administrative responsibilities is much greater for rural principals. Do these conditions foster the kind of instructional leadership needed in our rural schools?

Secondly, it is especially important to reevaluate the rural principal's role because it is so difficult to attract and keep high quality educational leaders in rural school districts. Jacobson (1988) calls rural school districts the school administration "farm system" because novice school administrators frequently gain experience in rural districts before moving to positions in suburban and urban schools. Consequently, rural superintendents often find themselves trying to persuade teachers with "principal potential" to seek principalships. They look first to their own teaching ranks, hoping to hire an individual who is a potentially effective leader and who is already committed to living in that specific rural area. Teachers interviewed for this study were just this type of individual. Administrators and teachers in their rural districts nominated them for participation in this study because of their school leadership potential.

This study gathers data about the rural principal's role by examining it through the eyes of the teachers who have "principal potential." This is a good place to start if we want to attract high quality educational leaders into the principalship and examine the role norms and expectations which have grown up around principals' work. These teachers' reasons for deciding not to become principals provide insight into those aspects of the rural principal's role which ought to be re-examined. For example, many of the rural teachers who participated in this study reported that the scope of the role affects the opportunities rural principals have for providing effective school leadership. Empirical data of this type may form the foundation for efforts to redefine and improve school leadership. According to the New York State School Board's Association (1988; 1), "All the signs indicate that now is the time for a fundamental reevaluation of the principalship..."

This study complements the research which identified the skills of effective principals. If both lines of research are brought together, we will not only have a better understanding of the skills needed to effectively lead schools, but we will also know why some of our most promising school leaders choose not to become principals. These data can help us redefine the rural principal's role in ways that will make it more attractive for potentially effective school leaders and more feasible for current principals.

Study Participants

Participants in this study were identified by their peers as teachers with "principal potential." Superintendents of five rural county school districts in a Southeastern state were asked to distribute nomination forms to their central office staff, and principals were asked to nominate study participants and distribute nomination forms to teachers in their schools. Four of the districts are single-high school districts, and the other district has two high schools. Nominators were asked to list the names of teachers throughout their district who they felt had "principal potential." They were also asked to write down their reasons for selecting those teachers.

Using a county-wide approach helped maintain confidentiality for nominators and nominees. Most of the nominations were made by people in the same school as the nominee, but that is to be expected because nominators have the most knowledge of the abilities of teachers in their own schools. Nominators were strongly urged to nominate teachers because of their potential as a principal, not because they were in graduate school or displayed an interest in becoming a principal. In all, 253 teachers submitted nominations, as did 20 principals, and 16 central office staff. Consequently, in most cases, the top nominees were the teachers who their fellow teachers felt had "principal potential." The following table approximates the district total teaching and administrative staffs and shows how many teachers and administrators actually participated in the nominating process. The last column shows the approximate percentage participation in the nominating process. Approximations are used to maintain the confidentiality of the participants and their districts.

County	Approximate totals (teachers, principals, C. O.)	Actual Submissions (teachers, principals, C. O.)	Approx. %'s
#1	450, 15, 20	98, 13, 9	22, 87, 45
#2	230, 8, 15	46, 1, 4	20, 12, 27
#3	170, 8, 10	33, 1, 0	19, 12, 0
#4	150, 10, 10	23, 5, 3	15, 50, 30
#5	210, 10, 10	53, 0, 0	25, 0, 0

Twenty-five of the top 31 nominees were selected to be interviewed. The six who were not selected were eliminated because they had recently been my graduate students, and their responses may have been influenced by their previous experiences with me. The district by district breakdown resulted in seven teachers being interviewed from the largest district, five teachers from two districts, and four teachers from the other two districts. All the respondents are veteran teachers--the youngest has been teaching for seven years. Seventeen are white women and eight are white men. Fourteen are elementary school teachers, two are middle school teachers, and nine are high school teachers.

To conclude this profile, it is important to point out that, of the twenty-five interviewees, only five teachers with "principal potential"--one from each county-- said they were interested in becoming principals. Seven respondents said, "maybe," and thirteen said, "no." This tells us something about the attractiveness of the principal's role. Even if we assume that the six excluded nominees would seek the principalship, only 11 of the top thirty-one potentially effective principals (according to their colleagues) are interested in becoming principals. What may be even more telling is that thirteen of the 31 said they were not interested in becoming a principal. Finally, it should be noted that the "maybe's" said that the principal's role would have to change significantly before they would consider it. We can conclude from this that 20 of the 31 potentially most effective school leaders, according to the educators in their districts, are unwilling to become principals as the role is now defined. But the number of principal candidates is just one of the concerns of superintendents. They are also seeking higher quality candidates for the principalship (New York State School Boards Association, 1988). For both of these reasons--improving the quantity and quality of principal candidates--we need to hear what these teachers say about the rural principal's role.

Data Collection

I traveled to each respondent's school to conduct a 35-45 minute interview which focused on the nominee's perspective on the principal's role. Interviews were conducted between January 3 and May 10, during the spring semester of 1992.

The first question was open-ended. Respondents were told to pretend that certification requirements were not a consideration, and to reflect on those aspects of the principal's role that would have to change before they would apply for a principalship. Then they were asked to complete the following sentence, "I would seek a principalship if..." After this question, probes were used to direct the respondents to think about specific role requirements, and norms of principal's behavior. Other probes explored their perspectives on principals' professional relationships, and how their own personal or family circumstances would have to change before they would seek a principalship. For example, one probe was, "Is there anything about the norms for principals' behavior which makes you say to yourself, 'That's not for me. That would have to change.'?"

A second open-ended question was used to explore the opposite side of this issue: "I want to become a principal because..." Respondents were asked to explain what attracts them to the principal's role. Probes were used again, this time asking for specific role requirements, norms of behavior, professional relationships, and personal and family effects that they find attractive. The following is an example of the second type of probe: "Is there anything about principals' professional relationships that attracts you to the role?"

Interviews were tape recorded and transcribed word for word. The recording equipment worked well, and all interviews are complete, except for a few portions where the respondents voice was too distant or too soft for the transcriber to hear. Notes were also taken to capture the tone of the comments and to record personal and professional data about the interviewees.

Data Presentation

Although these two lines of questioning result in two sets of data--aspects of the rural principal's role which attract teachers and those which repel them--this paper discusses only those aspects of the role which teachers report as barriers to seeking the principalship. Both the quantities and the qualities of the interviewees' reflections are presented. The code after each quote indicates the respondent's gender, teaching level, and district. For example, "F, ES, #4" stands for a female elementary school teacher in District 4.

The most frequently mentioned reason for not seeking the principalship was that the role of the principal is too distant from the instructional core of the school. This was mentioned 16 times. Closely related to this concern is the idea that principals deal with too much paperwork and bureaucracy, and too many petty responsibilities. This was mentioned 14 times. Taken together, these concerns are two sides of the same coin--not enough time for instructional responsibilities and too many non-instructional duties. Apparently, classroom teachers recognize that principals' work takes them farther from, not closer to, the central purposes of the school. Following are the comments made by teachers in three of the districts.

> I would seek the role if more emphasis in the principal's leadership would be on curriculum and staff development rather than running the physical plant of the school. (F, ES, #1)
>
> I do not want to be a manager of bus schedules and of lunch lines and that sort of thing. I know we have a problem in a school district this size. The principal has to wear a lot of hats. It's just that it seems the principal, whoever he (she) is when he (she) comes in, becomes consumed with those things. (M, HS, #3)
>
> ...from what I see in this county, and that's all I can speak for, it seems to me that the principalship role right now is not involved enough with instruction and curriculum. Maybe curriculum is just my thing. Maybe I like that better but I see them involved with more business-type roles than they are in educational roles and I think there needs to be some requirements for principals to be involved with the curriculum and what is going on within their schools. (F, ES, #5)

Other frequent comments reflect teachers' concerns about the size of the principal's role, and the time it requires away from the family. Thirteen references were made to the enormity of the job, and 12 other reflections focused on how this would affect their families.

> Okay. If I can say just one thing, that one of the points that I think I'm eluding to more than anything else is that perhaps the job of principals today involves more than one man (woman) can handle and I think probably the roles and responsibilities generally assigned to one man (woman) in the school system, that we call principal, needs to be divided and dispensed among several different people. (M, HS, #1)
>
> I think that as a principal the time requirement would be even greater than that involved in coaching. You have to be here early, you have to stay late, you have to come to every meeting, you have to go to every PTA and parent meeting, you have to go to Board of Education meetings, etc. The time involvement is just immense. My family would have to adjust to that. I think that would be a big adjustment for them, and my family is important to me. (M, ES, #2)
>
> When you assume the role of a principal, you are looking almost at a 20-hour a day job by the time the parents call you at night and different meetings are set up and all. If you assume the role of the principal, I don't see how you could possibly get into anything else. (M, ES, #4)

A third concern expressed by the teachers relates to the first one--being too distant from the instructional purposes of the school. Many teachers said principals do not have enough direct contact with students and that the nature of principals' relationships with students are not the kind they want. This concern was mentioned 10 times by seven different teachers.

> ...the bottom line is I (would) miss the contact with the children...becoming a part of their life is really what you do when you see them each day and maybe somewhere along the way you can help them out a little bit by being that involved with them. (F, ES, #1)
>
> I teach school because I love children. I guess the reason I haven't chosen to go into administration is that I see that, in one sense, as getting away from children. So, I would probably seek to go into administration if I could see that I could benefit children more than I can in the classroom. If I see it, which is the way I see it now, as getting away from children and not really being able to do something to their benefit, then I would seek it -- if I could help children out in that role. But, I haven't really seen that at this point in time. (M, ES, #2)

> I don't view being a principal as being very positive because you lose the touch of the children. You lose that daily one-to-one personal interaction. There is interaction but it is not like it is in the classroom. You lose that personal contact. You become more of a thing rather than their teacher or the person that they could go to. You become an authority figure. A teacher is an authority figure but in a different way. She (He) is an instructional authority figure but if you have a splinter you go to her or if you hurt your knee you go to her, or when Momma and Daddy have a fuss and you are upset you go to her. There may be a little wall between the office of the principal and the child. (F, ES, #3)

Another set of comments had to do with norms of principal behavior that did not match the teachers' personalities. Eight teachers reflected on the ways principals were expected to behave and said they did not want to behave in those ways. One teacher said, "I see a lot of administrators as a controller type...I am not a controller...I don't like anybody to get their feelings hurt." (F, MS, #1)

Another said,

> There are times that the principal has to put his (her) foot down and say, 'this is it, or this is it.' And I'm one of those that tend to like to straddle the fence a lot-- 'Well, I see what you're talking about, and I see what you're talking about.' But there are times when a principal has to get aggressive and say, 'This is it, period.' (F, ES, #1)

Another theme that emerged was teachers' concerns about how their relationships with other teachers would change if they became principals. Seven teachers reflected on this.

> I think anytime you have years of teaching, it's immediately hard to displace that and move into another role and still maintain the respect or maintain the same kind of awareness with your fellow teachers as you had. I think that would involve almost a change - the change in role from being a teacher respected on the faculty to being a leader because, immediately, they look at you differently. I think that part would become very difficult. (F, ES, #2)

Another high school teacher commented, "...because it is a small situation (community), it's probably hard for a principal to have friends...I mean it looks like you've got buddies on your faculty or whatever. As far as living in the community, I think that might be difficult." (F, HS, #3)

A male high school teacher shared the following thought,

> I guess the "us and them" is one of the worst I see with teachers and administrators. They are in their padded leather chairs and we're down here in the trenches fighting the battle. They are up there with their laser pointers saying, 'Well, we need to move some troops over here and do battle tomorrow.' (M, HS, #5)

Several teachers said that principals would need more autonomy and would have to be more in control of what goes on in schools before they would seek the principalship. Eight teachers reflected on the principal's lack of autonomy and control in the workplace.

> (I would seek a principalship) If I had more control over what happened at my school and I did not have so many regulations coming from the state level and the county office level-- those kinds of restrictions. (F, ES, #2)

> (I would seek a principalship) If the school board had less power in things such as moving

> principals from one school to another, less power in changing a principal's decision and those things. That would be the only thing that I could think of right now that is a big thing with me.
> ...Well, to me, I can't really see anything else. That would be the big change. If I had the total control over the school... (M, HS, #4)

Another set of comments referred to the necessity of the principal being a disciplinarian. Five teachers indicated they did not like that aspect of the principal's role.

> I think teachers, many times, and I think that this probably is true of parents as well, expect the high school principal to handle all the discipline that goes on and I think it's very unrealistic to expect one man (woman) in particular to be able to handle discipline throughout the entire school. (M, HS, #1)

> When the principal is gone, I am in charge, and they find a substitute (teacher) for me. My job is to go out there in the lunch room and simply do damage control. That's not only humiliating, but it is frustrating and completely antithetical to teaching at all. I think that is one thing a principal should do is be a teacher. (M, HS, #3)

Five teachers in three different districts said there is too much politics surrounding the principalship.

> The second thing that came to my mind is that I would not want it to be such a political job...I think in this county in the past... Maybe it has changed with our last superintendent but sometimes if the right people in the community decide they don't like the principal and they don't want the principal, he's gone. It's just as political as that. If the right people with the right kind of political pull decide they want someone out of the job. (F, ES, #3)

Another teacher said,

> Yes. It seems as though those who are willing to step out and really make a difference and go against some of the opposing (people), or some of the people that have been here for thirty or forty years, (they) seem to always be the ones that move on very quickly. ...Their (principals') opinions shift to fit the group or something...I disagree with that. I think that right up front you have to agree to disagree without holding grudges and be able to work these situations out. Of course maybe I'm being idealistic but I think this has worked for me so far. (M, HS, #4)

Another teacher in the same county commented, "Well, I hate the politics that makes the principal have to please the board of education and the board members." (F, HS, #4)

The issue of gender was on the minds of four teachers in two districts. Female teachers in two districts feel that being a woman puts them at such a disadvantage for becoming a principal that they choose not to pursue the principalship. One teacher, when asked to finish the first open-ended question immediately said, "If they would hire a woman." (F, HS, #1) A female elementary school teacher in another district commented,

> I feel that we as women don't have much of a chance to gain any kind of position in an administrative role in this particular county. I strongly feel that we're up against a "good old boys' club," and I think that's a big obstacle...the doors are closed...I just don't see that it's even a possibility because we've had women who are viable and they haven't gotten top positions. (F, ES, #2)

Finally, five teachers came right out and said that the principal's role was in need of total redefinition. Some of their comments follow:

> See, I've thought about this and I really feel that the role of the principal needs to be totally redefined and restructured. (F, ES, #2)
>
> You can't pay me enough to do that. I mean for what I am going to lose. (M, HS, #3)
>
> I'm saying I don't think there are enough hours in the day for me to do all the things I think would be necessary to do. (F, MS, #5)

Data Summary and Analysis

The following chart summarizes the data. The first column indicates the theme or concern , the second column indicates the number of times the concern was mentioned, the third column indicates the number and grade level of the teachers who mentioned it, and the fourth column indicates the number of districts represented in these concerns.

Theme	Times Mentioned	Number of Teachers	Districts
1. too distant from instructional core	16	12 -- 8E, 2M, 2H	5
2. too many non-instructional duties	14	12 -- 9E, 1M, 2H	5
3. the role is just too large	13	8 -- 4E, 1M, 3H	5
4. requires too much time away from family	12	10 -- 5E, 1M, 4H	4
5. too little direct contact with students	10	7 -- 5E, 1M, 1H	4
6. behavior norms don't match personality	10	9 -- 6E, 1M, 2H	5
7. relationships with teachers would change	9	8 -- 4E, 0M, 4H	4
8. too little autonomy and control	9	9 -- 6E, 0M, 3H	4
9. being a woman is a big disadvantage	8	4 -- 2E, 0M, 2H	2
10. principal must be disciplinarian	6	6 -- 2E, 1M, 3H	2
11. too much politics	5	5 -- 1E, 0M, 4H	3
12. the role needs to be totally redefined	5	4 -- 2E, 1M, 1H	3

So, what can we conclude from these data? If we want our potentially effective leaders among the teaching ranks to pursue the principalship,what can policymakers do to make the principal's role more attractive?

First, it is clear that the size of the rural principal's job is too great. This is suggested not only by theme number three, but also by taking together themes 1, 2, 3, and 4. Unless policymakers--school board members at both the state and local levels--begin to shrink the range and number of role demands placed on rural principals, it is unlikely that principals in rural schools will get closer to the school's instructional core, will have fewer non-instructional duties, will have a more reasonable workload, and will have more time to spend with their families.

These teachers could read all the "effective principal" literature in the world; but, based on their experiences in schools, they would not be convinced that they could become effective school leaders as long as the role continues to involve all the non-instructional duties. According to these teachers, the principal's job, as defined by the norms and expectations of school board members, educators, students, and parents, has little to do with improving schools, but has much to do with completing reports, maintaining the school grounds and equipment, attending meetings with other educators, and attending after school activities. In so far as they want to be educators, leaders, and teachers, the principalship is not for them.

Assuming that policymakers implemented a series of strategies to redefine the principal's role more narrowly--with fewer clerical and maintenance functions--what direction should policymakers take to make the principal's role more educational and more attractive to teachers with "principal potential?" Theme number five suggests that we should define the role in close proximity to students. We know that the desire to work with and educate young people is the main reason teachers enter the field. We ought to use this appeal to also attract the best quality teacher-leaders into the principalship.

It is interesting to note that the assistant principal's role is usually defined closer to the student body. Maybe we should not assume that the principalship, the higher status position, should be more distant from the students than the assistant principalship. Getting closer to the students may involve more student discipline, but this a critical educational function? School-wide student discipline is just one function within the larger area of student services, which many educators view as the most important function of the school. The data in this study suggest that the important thing to do is move the principalship closer to the central purposes of the school. Maybe the principal's role would be more attractive to teachers with principal potential if more of their work centered on student services. Broadly defined, student services also includes curriculum and staff supervision functions. This conceptualization might make schools more like communities and less like bureaucracies. Student services, including curriculum and program development, staff supervision, and student discipline are at the center of the school's purposes. Defining principals' work largely in these areas would put the principal closer to the school's central purposes.

Another positive direction for redefining the principal's role is implied in recent calls for restructuring schools. Two recent suggestions call for developing collegial school cultures, and for site-based management. If these suggestions take hold and become formalized in a redefinition of the principal's role, it is likely that teachers with principal potential will not be so concerned about how their relationships with teachers will change. The role of principal will not be so hierarchically distinguished from that of teacher. Here again, a change in the definition of the principal's role may lead to more feelings of community and less feelings of bureaucracy in our schools.

The issue of autonomy and control is also related to calls for restructured schools. If policymakers are serious about allowing decisions to be made at the school level (New York School Boards Association, 1988), the role of the principal must be carried out closer to the core purposes of the school.

Regarding the amount of politics involved in school administration, it is unlikely that policymakers can or should do much to change the role of school boards. It is unlikely that they will because it is school board members themselves who are the policymakers. The role of the principal is unlikely to become less political local governance is increased. Principals in non-public schools, for example, are often confronted with more politically-charged situations than are public school principals. It seems that our current system--a mix of local and state control--keeps educational politics to a manageable level. We must remember that education is inherently political. As Hodginkinson (1991; 36) points out, "Educational purposes are always politically open...purposes are endlessly subject to debate, critique, and argument through the polity."

Conclusion

It is important to remember that the people who participated in this study are *not* principals; consequently, these data do not reflect the disgruntlement of principals. Instead, they reflect the attitudes of the teachers we hope will pursue the principalship. It is clear that these people are not likely to pursue the principalship, and it is little wonder that so many recent reports on improving school leadership bemoan the lack of high quality candidates for the principalship. The principal's role, instead of being attractive to potentially effective principals, is considered to be a clerical and custodial job that has little to do with improving student learning.

In conclusion, and in answer to my hospital friend, many teachers do not aspire to become principals. The principalship is not the same kind of role held by the hospital CEO. One of the study participants told a story that summarizes the feelings of several teachers interviewed for this study:

> When I applied to the EdS. Program at Olympia University, I asked the acting principal here, at that time, to write me a recommendation. His recommendation said that Mr. Carter (interviewee) really would like to improve his life be becoming principal. I could not believe it! I mean that would be the last thing on my mind. Why would I want to do that? That's what he wanted to do. That's where he was coming from, but it sure isn't like that to me!

The findings of this study suggest that, in order to attract teacher-leaders into the rural school principalship, we should redefine the principal's role. It ought to be more focused on the school's central purposes and on the activities that directly affect students' lives. Then, if school restructuring suggestions are carried out so that more educational decisions are made at the school level, and school cultures become more collegial, we will be improving the possibility that teachers with principal potential will be more attracted to the principal's role.

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Collaborative Partnership:
Teaming for Rural Schools and Parents

General School Conditions Prompting Collaborative Partnership

West, Idol, and Cannon (1989) indicate several conditions present in today's school environment that prompt our need as a profession to develop alternative means of interaction, particularly collaborative approaches to this interaction. First, they cite the fact that nearly 66% of the students identified as handicapped in our nation's schools are receiving the greatest portion of their education in the regular classroom. This, coupled with the notion that many schools are now focussing on the development of collaborative approaches to the delivery of special and remedial education, and the findings gleaned from the effective school literature which indicate collegiality as a hallmark of those schools deemed most effective, creates a professional school environment ripe for the development of collaborative partnerships.

A second constellation of factors indicated by West, Idol, and Cannon (1989) which further the need to examine collaborative approaches to professional interaction include the complexity of special services delivered to today's students with handicaps. Students no longer receive all school related services from one professional, and the need to coordinate these services from multiple parties is obvious. The need to coordinate such diverse services as transportation; occupational therapy; physical therapy; speech-language therapy; instruction from a variety of teachers such as reading, mathematics, science, physical education, art, and social studies; food services; and, health-related services has, again, encouraged sensitive professionals to explore methods for avoiding fragmentation of service delivery.

A final condition that West, Idol, and Cannon (1989) point out is that of our current emphasis on "early identification and prevention of students' learning and behavior problems before their problems become so severe that a referral to a special program or service is perceived as needed" (p. vii). Here, we have seen the development of intervention assistance teams (cf. building assistance teams; teacher assistance teams; and, the like) which have as their first priority to solve educational problems within the regular classroom environment. Another condition that, in order to be effective, will require a new manner of interaction between school professionals as we have not been typically called upon to come together to accomplish such problem-solving.

These conditions of the general school environment, as well as many others, have set the stage for professionals to seriously question past methods of interaction, and to develop in their place new methods of interaction. Rural schools have particular needs that dictate the necessity of new models for professional interaction.

Conditions of Rural Schools Prompting Collaborative Partnership

The need for new models of professional interaction in the educational setting has been apparent for some time, particularly for those educational personnel employed in rural school settings. When we consider that nearly 67% of the 16,000 public school districts in the nation have been categorized as "rural" (Sher, 1978), the critical nature of this need seems all too apparent.

Moreover, when we consider that rarely is it the case that we can find teacher training programs that concentrate on the particular needs of the rural educator (Campbell, 1986), again, we face the overwhelming need to address these professional interaction difficulties. When teachers are not specifically trained to meet the needs of service delivery in rural settings, we often lose them to later employment in suburban and urban districts (Horn, 1985; Seifert & Simone, 1980).

Finally, when we reflect on the service delivery problems of the rural special educator, we can understand the need for new models of professional interaction. When we consider that rural special educators contend with higher poverty levels than nonrural settings; increases in population not matched with increases in tax bases; costlier services than urban counterparts due to transportation requirements and staffing needs; greater percentages of handicapped students than urban areas; funding inadequacies; negative attitudes toward handicapped students; long distances between schools and services; difficulty involving parents; resistance to change; staff development problems; and professional isolation (Helge, 1984, 1991; Kirmer, Lockwood, Mickler, & Sweeney, 1984; McIntosh, 1986), it seems evident that new models to increase and improve the professional interaction in such settings are mandatory.

If we recognize the general school culture which is fostering our need to examine collaborative approaches, along with the specific characteristics of rural schools which prompt this examination, the cause for concern is obvious. In this changed environment, to provide effective service delivery, to provide services that recognize the valuable input of all educational personnel as well as that of parents, we need approaches to interaction that can accommodate all persons involved. However, prior to the implementation of collaborative partnership as a model for this interaction several prerequisites must be met.

Prerequisites to Effective Collaborative Partnership

First, teachers and parents need school administrative support for such interaction. Without a positive school environment set by an administrator who encourages such interaction, it is doubtful that the teacher and parent alone will succeed. Second, participants must be allowed to volunteer for collaborative partnership. If teachers, other school professionals, and parents are forced to participate in collaborative partnership, the efforts for effective interaction will most likely be voided by such a demand. Third, professionals and parents who choose to participate in collaborative partnership must be given freedom in scheduling their interactions to permit the maximum opportunity for the process to result in benefits. Fourth, establishment of a positive school environment which encourages teachers, other service delivery professionals, and parents to come together for the purposes of problem-solving must be undertaken. The first three conditions will go a long way in creating this positive environment; however, teachers, other professionals, and parents may need direct and frequent inservice, staff development, and parent education activities to recognize the need for such change in interaction, and to create a receptive professional and lay body for such a change in interaction.

Finally, all professionals and parents involved in building effective collaborative partnerships will need to be able to differentiate this process from consultation. Rather than merely interacting more with other rural professionals and parents, rather than merely providing others with the answers, or seeking answers from others, effective collaborative partners recognize a different level of interaction. There is a trust, a division of labor, a reciprocity, and a shared responsibility not common in the consultation relationship (Friend & Cook, 1992; Johnson, Pugach, & Hammitte, 1988; Russell & Kaderavek, in press). These notions related to collaborative partnership, unlike those associated with consultation, are more closely linked to feminist theory where collaboration is at the heart of interaction rather than the more typical interaction linked to consultation which is competitive in nature, and a part of the male-dominated hierarchy (see Belenky, Clinchy, Goldberger, & Tarule, 1986).

Rural Teachers and Parents Teaming for Collaborative Partnership

Once the above prerequisites have been accomplished - no small feat, collaborative partnerships can be fostered. Rural professionals and parents are now ready to examine the stages of effective collaboration, and determine the activities most appropriate to be accomplished at each stage. Furthermore, rural professionals and parents are now ready to examine a variety of methods for achieving collaborative partnership. These include, though are not limited to, such methods as co-teaching, cooperative learning, and modeling. (See, for example, Russell & Kaderavek, in press.)

Teacher preparation programs might well enhance their training candidates' ability to work with rural special needs and at-risk populations by preparing such candidates to work more efficiently with the parents of these populations. Parents, an often overlooked resource for their children, can be tremendously helpful in designing service delivery, and in supplementing educational experiences with home experiences. Should schools and educational professionals learn the nuances of effective collaborative partnership with parents, they too may be able to tap this resource.

Indeed, Helge (1980) found that a primary problem reported by 40% of rural teachers was the lack of parental involvement. Factors cited for this lack of involvement included such conditions as climate, geography, language problems, cultural difference, and distance between home and services. Helge also found that the attitudes of these educators may well have impeded parental involvement. Her data suggested that teachers believed that parent involvement meant parents being appreciative, passive, and in attendance as requested. Teacher preparation programs, by educating their candidates in effective collaborative partnership, and by sharing the notion that children will do better in school when both teachers and parents work together (Abdo & Milizia, 1987), could alter these attitudes that seem to deter parent involvement in rural schools.

By learning to utilize effective collaborative partnership between rural special education personnel and parents, interaction between these parties could be enhanced. This interaction could lead to mutually determined goals and shared action planning. Teachers could develop a format that would guide both parents and themselves as they wind through the collaborative process. (A sample Parent-Teacher Collaboration Form developed by Russell and his colleagues (Russell, Gold, & Williams, 1989; Williams, Russell, & Gold, Fall-Winter, 1991-92) is appended.)

Whatever the path that is taken to the collaborative process, teachers and teacher educators, parents, and other service delivery professionals must recognize the need to work together to solve the problems of educating children and youth today. When effective home-school collaborative partnership is developed, rural special needs children and youth will be benefitted by an improved teaming process, and an ecological model for the complete education of the individual. More effective and efficient educational programming will be likely, and greater strides in educational achievement will be possible.

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Appendix

Sample Parent-Teacher Collaboration Form

Parents' Names ____________________

Address ____________________

Telephone ____________________ (Work) ____________________ (Home)

Child's/Student's Name ____________________

Age __________ Date of Birth __________ Grade __________ Current Grade/Class __________

Issues/Concerns/Problems/Questions/Needs: ____________________

____

Goal Setting: List goals to address- concerns/problems/needs.

Goal #1: ____________________

Goal #2: ____________________

Goal #3: ____________________

Action Plan: Select one goal and develop an Action Plan.

Goal to Work On: ____________________

____

Action Plan:

Activity	Person(s) Responsible	Timeline	Product of Evaluation

____

Date of Next Contact ________ Method of Next Contact ________ Purpose of Next Contact ____________________

____________________ Parent initials ________ Educator initials ________

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Ethnosociology: An Interdisciplinary, Interpretive Research Model for Inquiry in Rural Special Education

Ethnosociology offers rural special educators/researchers a new way of understanding some old problems. Traditional perspectives and approaches for understanding and alleviating these problems have proven to be less than effective (Hepburn, forthcoming). In this article, the authors will present the methods, theoretical viability, and practical applications of ethnosociology, an interpretive research model deriving from ethnomethodology, existential sociology, and interpretive anthropology.

In its relatively short history, a multitude of needs have been identified in rural special education. For the most part, these reported needs have clustered around calls for increased knowledge and understanding in the areas of service delivery, rural values and attitudes, preservice/inservice training, personnel recruitment/retention, securing resources, multicultural problems, families/parents, and supervision and leadership (Hepburn, forthcoming). While there has been a great deal of research conducted in addressing these needs, there has been a notable lack of any interpretive research utilizing qualitative methods. What little that has been done has overwhelmingly utilized descriptive case studies to present various portraits of service delivery (Capper, 1988; Hartley & Wasson, 1989; Helge, 1981, 1989; O'Connell, Minkler, Dereshiwsky, Guy, & Roanhorse, 1992; Potter, Smith, Quan, & Nosek, 1992), rural values and attitudes (Collins, 1992; DePaepe & Walega, 1990; Helge, 1989), preservice/inservice training (Dopheide, Ellis, & Duncan, 1986; Helge, 1989), personnel recruitment/retention (Collins, 1992), resources (Collins, 1992; Vogler, 1990), multicultural issues (Cunningham, Cunningham, & O'Connell, 1987; Hartley & Wasson, 1989; O'Connell, Minkler, Dereshiwsky, Guy, & Roanhorse, 1992), families/parents (Collins, 1992; Helge, 1989; Joyce, 1987; Van Warner, 1985), and supervision/leadership (Capper, 1988; Collins, 1992; DePaepe & Walega, 1990).

There appears to be a shared, underlying assumption common to all of these research efforts. That is, rural settings are as unique as they are typical, calling for more in-depth holistic understandings of specific contexts to guide problem-solving strategies. The ethnosociological method presented herein offers a new, alternative approach to illuminating and interpreting these contextual understandings.

Constructing an Ethnosociology of Special Education[1]

> At a minimum, special education . . . should . . . adopt a multiparadigmatic, multidisciplinary stance. This stance should begin with a multiparadigmatic, metatheoretical critique of special education knowledge--an antifoundational, self-reflective examination of the limits and validity of special education knowledge from the alternative perspective of the multiple paradigms of social scientific thought.

> And it would end with a democratized multiparadigmatic, multidisciplinary reorientation of all levels of special education knowledge and concomitant modifications in the curriculum of special education professional education. (Skrtic, 1988a, p. 444)

Skrtic (1988b, 1991) subsequently suggests that teachers embody two distinct sets of special education knowledge. First, they receive a professional training where they learn formal theories and practices related to special education pedagogy. Secondly, ". . . upon entry into the public schools (during the student teaching internship and later as employees), teachers are inculcated into an existing institutionalized subculture of practicing teachers (i.e., the practitioner culture), with its own set of norms, customs, and conventions" (Skrtic, 1988b, p. 506).

Furthermore, Skrtic continues, "Teachers learn to teach by modeling people they have seen teach. . . who got their programs from previous models (see Gehrke & Kay, 1984; Lortie, 1975). And so it goes" (p. 507). The author concludes that the "practitioner culture" has a very narrow and limited view of the world, which can be effected by expanding the disciplinary focus of ". . . special education theoretical, applied, and professional knowledge, and a concomitant revision in the professional education curriculum of special education" (Skrtic, 1988a, p. 433).

While in agreement that a multidisciplinary perspective should be embraced by special education on a formal level, the authors must take issue with Skrtic's assumption that the practitioner culture is necessarily not multidisciplinary on the level of local theory. In fact, this essay suggests quite the opposite--that the level of local theory and classroom culture does reflect multidisciplinary, multiparadigmatic, and multidomain expressions that have not been academically formalized. This study suggests that the approach to expanding the focus of rural special education knowledge should begin with discovering and elaborating special education knowledge at the rural local theory level. This, then, will inform the expansion of theoretical focus at the professional education level, with an immediate grounded relevance. It is this assumption that guides this current effort to provide an ethnosociology of rural special education.

Ethnosociology and Interpretive Thought

The term "ethnosociology" derives from Whiteley's (1988) research on Hopi local theory. More specifically, Whiteley argued ". . . for the utility of taking a Hopi, or ethnosociological, analysis of social and historical processes in explaining . . . sociocultural change. . ." (p. 285). This effectively brought together an anthropological concern for cultural interpretation and a sociological concern for understanding social order. Similarly, this current attempt to formulate and apply an ethnosociology of rural special education seeks to combine an anthropological interest in the cultures of rural special education, and a sociological interest in how social order is conceptualized and constructed in rural special education settings. Both anthropology and sociology are multiparadigmatic disciplines, consequently, it is necessary to briefly discuss the approaches that characterize this particular vision of ethnosociology--namely, interpretive anthropology, ethnomethodology, and existential sociology.

Interpretive Anthropology

According to Geertz (1983), "Interpretive explanation . . . trains its attention on what institutions, actions, images, utterances, events, customs, all the usual objects of social-scientific interest, mean to those whose institutions, actions, customs, and so on they are" (p. 22). And similarly, "The essential vocation of interpretive anthropology is . . . to make available to us answers that others . . . have given, and thus to include them in the consultable record of what man [sic] has said" (1973, p. 30). Seen from this perspective, culture and meaning are one in the same. The culture that any individual lives in, experiences, creates, and/or conceptualizes, is entirely comprised of meaning. Consequently, one cannot discover and describe culture unless local meanings are pursued.

This position does not imply hopeless investigations of private individual worlds. On the contrary, there is an assumption that knowledge, hence meaning, is a socioculture construction. As such, cultural meanings are always the result of group activity.

Turning to this current project, it is the local meaning/culture of groups and individuals involved with rural special education that is of paramount interest. To understand that culture, it is imperative that it be discovered through the individuals that live it.

Sociology of Everyday Life

Ethnomethodology and existential sociology arise from an interpretive tradition in sociology that owes its development to the philosophical works of Heidegger (1962), Husserl (1960, 1968), Sartre (1956) and Schutz (1962). Sociologically, they are variously indebted to Weber (1947), Simmel (1978) and Parsons (1937), and to the later development of symbolic interactionism (e.g., Becker, 1963; Blumer, 1969; Goffman, 1959; Mead, 1934). While the two approaches overlap a great deal, there are sufficient differences to call for a discussion of each.

Ethnomethodology. As developed by Garfinkel (1956, 1967), ethnomethodology focuses on ". . . how people in their everyday lives, make sense out of, give meaning to, and create a social structure of the world . . ." (Adler & Adler, 1987, p. 25). Essentially, it is the study of how individuals accomplish the reality of social order. The focus of study is on the actions and interactions that individuals engage in to bring about and maintain that order. Mehan and wood (1975) offered five propositions that define the foundation of ethnomethodology:

1. The assembly of reality is a reflective act,
2. Social knowledge is organized into coherent groupings,
3. Reality is socially constructed in interaction,
4. Social realities are highly vulnerable to disruption, and
5. Individuals move in and out of different realities on a continuous basis.

This approach emphasizes the cognitive aspects of individual and social experience in much the same way as Geertz' (1973,

1983) interpretive anthropology focuses on the cognitive meanings of cultural symbols. In attempting to discover the local theories of rural special education constructed and conceptualized by groups and individuals in rural contexts, this study most decidedly advocates seeking these same cognitive understandings. At the same time, there is more to social reality than cognitive and rational meaning and behavior. As such, attention is turned to the third foundational theory informing an ethnosociology of special education--existential sociology.

Existential sociology. One of the earliest proposals for an existential sociology was put forth by Tiryakian (1962), when he suggested that positivist, or conventional, science is incapable of truly discovering the nature of human social behavior. He concluded:

> The physical sciences are not always aware of their intrinsic limitations, but the social sciences (in particular, psychology and sociology) are always confronted with their limitations in studying man. Man's freedom in choosing his actions is a foremost limit to the scientific pursuit of absolute knowledge about human behavior. Just as the sciences in toto can only explore and explain "objects" in the world and never the world itself, so the social sciences can only study aspects of man, but never integral man himself. Man as a whole has a nonobjective side which is impervious to scientific research. (pp. 115-116)

The recognition of the freedom to choose, influenced significantly by the works of Sartre (1956), is reflected in other interpretive approaches. However, in their attempts to maintain a vision of objective knowledge, there has been a continued emphasis on cognitive meaning and rational behavior. Reacting to this rational scientific focus, Douglas (1977a) maintained:

> But, even more damning, all such analyses assume implicitly that the everyday social realm can be reduced to cognitive experience without losing the integrity of that realm, although their intermittent recognition of the situationally contingent nature of social life denies that very assumption. (p. 62)

This, then, set the stage for a contemporary model of existential sociology, defined by Douglas (1977a) as, "... the study of human experience-in-the-world (or existence) in all its forms" (p.vii). Similarly, for Denzin (1989b), "Focus is . . . given to uncovering how persons live . . . experiences in their daily lives" (p. 158). Further, it is an ". . . attempt to make the world of problematic lived experience of ordinary people directly available . . ." (1989a, p. 7).

There is an undeniable emphasis on considering the problematic aspects of everyday social reality. This results in a need for viewing and interpreting, not only rational cognitive behaviors, but also irrational behaviors, emotions, feelings and the role of free choice. Douglas (1977a) outlined six basic assumptions that should guide an existential sociology:

1. Social reality represents a fusion of thoughts,

feelings and actions in each individual;

2. Social reality consists of just as much conflict as consensus;
3. Individuals employ a situational rationality that is strongly influenced by feelings and emotions;
4. Social reality is political, in that individuals and groups continuously engage in struggles for power and status;
5. These aspects of social reality can only be discovered through qualitative, interpretive research methods; and,
6. Social reality is always in flux.

This adds the dimensions of irrationality, affective behavior, and social conflict to the present search for local theories of rural special education. These additions are particularly germane in studying rural special education because often times students, teachers and parents become deeply involved with affective influences, irrational behaviors, and the inevitable political conflicts of an educational system established by law.

Ethnosociology and Special Education

Combining interpretive anthropology, enthnomethodology, and existential sociology provides a foundation upon which to build an ethnosociology for the study of rural special education. The following propositions, derived from these interpretive approaches, should guide the development of that ethnosociology.

1. Reality is socially constructed through interaction and reflection, and is constantly changing;
2. Cultural meanings provide for the ways to construct realities, and for the potential content of those realities;
3. Individuals choose their actions based on socially constructed local theories of social order;
4. Local theories of social order are potentially rational and irrational, cognitive and affective, conscious and tacit, and formal and informal, in any combination at any given time and place;
5. Local theories of special education social order, in all their lived dimensions, are the proper subject matter for an ethnosociology of special education;
6. Local theories of social order are primarily accessible through the use of interpretive ethnographic methodologies; and,
7. Interpretive researchers should present their own local theories of the special education phenomena under study to minimize unintentional distortion and enhance interpretation.

This last point is substantiated by a number of scholars who have rejected the notion of the possibility of an objective observer in interpretive research (Berg & Smith, 1988; Denzin, 1989a, 1989b; Douglas, 1977a; Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Patton, 1990; Stainback & Stainback, 1988; Wolcott, 1990). In its place is an observer who has attempted to reflexively understand his or her own theories, both formal and informal, in order to recognize and minimize bias. Douglas (1977b) summarized it nicely when he stated:

> . . . I am not arguing that we begin or end with a presuppositionless knowledge . . . . It is true that our basic common sense ideas of reality, of what constitutes experience of the real world, are commonly presupposed by sociological investigation, and I do not argue that we seek or find a reality completely undetermined by presuppositions of common sense. And certainly each phenomenological or existential sociologist is greatly affected by his own personal experience and individual predictions, so I am not arguing that in some way this kind of sociologist is a tabula rasa researcher, or a medium of social reality who is simply the vessel through which social reality can be known. (pp. 296-297)

In applying this multidisciplinary approach to rural special education, we should arrive at (to paraphrase Bogdan & Knoll, 1988) an ethnosociology of rural special education. That is to say, this approach will allow for a critical interpretation of the realities of rural special education, which should, in turn, provide for the development of more liberating, pragmatic, and relevant practices in rural special education classrooms.

Ethnosociology and Rural Applications: An Example

As stated above it has long been recognized that rural special education is plagued by the dual problems of recruitment and retention. The authors believe that both problems can be addressed through ethnosociology. One of the cornerstones of ethnosociological research is to go among the population that has the problem, or is most effected by the situation under investigation. With that in mind, the authors suggest a total immersion of field workers into the world of the problem. Many of the answers will come out of the data collected. Unlike other types of research that rely on the accumulation of data and then the drawing of conclusions, ethnosociology is a continuous process of data collection, analysis which leads to further avenues to be explored, and so on, until some arbitrary point is decided on at which the researchers say, "We have enough for now."

The first group to be approached for data collection would be special education students effected by the lack of trained personnel in their classrooms. By observing, questioning, and interacting with this population, it could be determined what they feel is needed to draw potential teachers to special education in a rural setting. These same students would be an excellent source in attempting to determine what factors they believe to have been instrumental in the nonretention of special education teachers. Information regarding the attributes of what makes a good teacher could go into the total research package to begin to address the problem of recruitment and retention. The students' theories of what is important to be learned, the method for best conveying that information, and what influence the students themselves have on recruitment and retention should also be considered. By considering this population that is most effected by the dearth of good teachers in rural special education, the matter of recruitment/retention will begin to be seen in a more multidimensional format.

It is also necessary to carry out ethnosociological research among professionals currently teaching in rural special education programs. By spending time with these teachers and learning their frustrations, causes of stress and burnout, and reasons for staying or leaving, special education administrators will begin to seriously address the problem of retention. This research could best be carried out by inservicing special education teachers in the techniques of ethnosociological research. In this manner, the teachers, with a facilitator who would coordinate the project, would carry out research on their fellow teachers, who, in turn, would carry out research on them. This approach has a number of advantages. First of all, it would cause the teachers to study other teachers, an application that would have value both emotionally and pedagogically. Secondly, a project of this nature would have to include group evaluation of what has been observed. This process of reflection would point out other areas of data collection and begin to point the way to some of the reasons rural special education teachers leave.

Another group to consider learning from by means of ethnosociology is administrators, on both the building and central office levels. If the problems of recruitment and retention are to be adequately addressed, educators must also have an understanding of the problem as the administrator sees it. Parents of special education students could provide valuable resources in understanding what might be offered to teachers and potential teachers in terms of community support. When a rural community loses a special education teacher the entire community suffers. Ethnosociology offers a means of going to these most important participants and attempting to see the problems of recruitment and retention of special education teachers through their eyes.

To develop a better understanding of the specific problem of recruitment, ethnosociological researchers must turn their attention to university undergraduates. A wealth of information is to be had in terms of what incentives would be necessary to induce university undergraduates to become rural special education teachers. Another potential source for information and solutions are local high school seniors. Educational researchers must enter their world in order to better identify potential special education teachers among them. Guidance counselors on both the high school and university levels must be considered in attempting to remediate the problem of special education recruitment.

Once research is carried out with all of the aforementioned groups, the ethnosociological researcher is ready to interpret what has been collected. It must once again be emphasized that these results and interpretations, in turn, create more sources of inquiry. They must also be taken back to the participants to verify the interpretations. A possible solution that could come from this type of research would be an active grant seeking campaign on the part of a school district to provide grants and scholarships for students interested in going into special education. A consortium of school districts might be established to pool their resources for the recruitment of new teachers. Mentoring programs for first-through-third-year teachers could be established. If financial incentives were not possible, the above research might motivate teachers to stay in the classroom.

In the area of preservice training, university students, faculty, and administration, along with school district personnel, should become a source of solutions. These are the populations that have an interest in, and an ability to, effect change. Mentoring programs for education majors could be established in the freshman year. These programs could take various forms; those forms to be determined by the needs assessed from the ethnosociology carried out among the above populations.

Inservice training could be effectively carried out by a consortium of school districts employing teachers to do the inservicing. Along with the process of determining the inservice needs of rural special education teachers, would come a potential pool of master teachers who could best meet those needs. These teacher/presenters would hold a greater legitimacy in the eyes of their fellow teachers, as well as, affording school districts a cadre of master teachers who could then serve in the part-time capacity of staff development.

The solutions to the problems of recruitment, retention, preservice and inservice training, as well as, the host of other problems that plague rural special education are out there. We, as educators doing ethnosociology, can discover those answers through interpretive research. Those solutions will be as varied and as original as we allow our research to be.

Notes

[1] Portions of this essay have appeared in

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Interpretive Single-Subject Design: A Research Tool For Practioner-Guided Applied Inquiry in Rural Settings

Many teachers sense that they need to do something different about a problem confronting them with a particular child and/or his or her immediate learning environment, but they are stymied, often not knowing what to do or how to do it. Freiberg (1992) asserts that many teachers wish to bring their teaching not only closer to recommended practice standards but also, by implication, many teachers wish to take it a step or two further for the exceptional child or situation; but again they don't know how. They have a desire to grow, but they need help. While Zins, Curtis, Graden, and Ponti (1988) have verified that the delivery of effective educational services to children with handicaps and at-risk students has been the subject of much current concern in rural and urban settings, rural schools and respective issues, teacher development, and exceptional students' needs appear to be in double jeopardy. Rural schools have not only received less attention, but rural exceptional students are at higher risk than their urban peers (DeYoung, 1987; Helge, 1985, 1990).

Rationale

As credit to an already exemplary tradition of having to fend for one's self due to a paucity of resources and a seemingly skewed legislative rural focus (Helge, 1985; Illback & Ellis, 1981), rural communities and schools have historically been experimenting with creative programming for handicapped and nonhandicapped students (Huebner & Wise, 1992). Nowhere in the field of educational service delivery is creativity more critical and more rewarding than in direct instruction-intervention with students. What looms equally critical for teachers then is to continue to build and capitalize on existent collaborative intra-community, intra-school, and student resource pools, engendering creative resolve and cost-effective problem solving consistent with rural tradition and context.

Huebner and Wise (1992) suggest that such resource strategies not only increase intraschool resources but also capitalize on the unique assets of the rural community (p.21). Hepburn and Stile (in press) suggest a variation on an inquiry (applied research) theme that would simultaneously provide the concerned and inquisitive teacher with a framework that helps formulate not only what to do but answers the "so what now" how-to-do-it question. Because of its inclusion of the naturalistic-qualitative data base used to precisely tune intervention, this diagnostic and prescriptive teaching tool utilizes those uniquely local qualitative features gleaned from in vivo experiences that characterize an individual, as well as a group of students in rural settings.

Toward an Interpretive Singe-Subject Design: From Thin Description to Thick Interpretation

Ever since the publication of Thomas Kuhn's, The Structure of Scientific Revolutions in 1962, there has been a gradual shifting in the basic premises of gathering and validating scientific knowledge. With this shift has come an increasing awareness of the importance of understanding the social and historical contexts of individual and group behaviors. In order to better understand these contexts, authors such as Ballard (1986) have called for a more concerted effort to utilize qualitative methods in data gathering for behavioral research.

Single-Subject Positivism vs. Interpretive Thought

As described by Borg and Gall (1989), the distinguishing feature of single-subject design is that the sample of subjects is one (i.e., N=1). If two or more subjects are treated as one group, single-subject methods are still applicable. A second distinguishing feature is continuous measurement over time as opposed to pre- and posttesting. A third major difference between single-subject and other quantitative designs is the heavy reliance upon graphic significance rather than statistical significance. For example, in a study of the effects of immediate feedback and primary reinforcement (the independent variables) on time-on-task (the dependent variable), data were collected on the behavior of a single subject over 21 sessions divided into four phases. The four phases alternated observation of the subject without application of the independent variables (the baseline, or A1 and A2 phases) with the experimental (or B1 and B2) phases where the independent variables were applied.

Although the three distinguishing features of N=1 inquiry set it apart from traditional group quantitative designs, the underlying belief system of single-subject and group quantitative designs devotees is "conventional" or "positivist" as described by Guba nd Lincoln (1989) and Lincoln and Guba (1985). Given contrasting belief systems or "paradigms" (Table 1), is it possible that single-subject "conventionalists" and "constructivists" (not necessarily single-subject constructivists) can accommodate one another in the conduct of inquiry in special education settings? As Guba and Lincoln (1989) have speculated, accommodation:

> will come about, if ever, because adherents of both paradigms will agree to engage in..... discussion that will result in a new construction with which all can agree, not because the new construction is "truer" than other of its predecessors but because it is better informed and more sophisticated. (p. 115)

Nature of reality (ontology). The first set of assumptions concerns ontology, or the nature of reality. According to positivist thought, there is one concrete reality that is shared by all people. Conversely, interpretive thought holds that realities are socially constructed and that sharedness of realities within a group is the result of social processes (e.g., Berger & Luckmann, 1967; Denzin, 1989; Douglas & Jounson, 1977; Heidegger, 1962; Husserl, 1960, 1968; Mearleau-Ponty 1962; Sartre, 1956; Schutz, 1962, 1976).

Knower-known relationships (epistemology). Epistemology is concerned with the nature of knowing and knowledge. Whereas positivism views the separation of the observer and reality as an ideal, the interpretive position maintains that all knowledge is necessarily filtered through human perception, so no separation is possible.

Table 1

Contrasting Positivist and Naturalist Axioms

Axioms About	Positivist Paradigm	Naturalist Paradigm
The nature of reality	Reality is single, tangible and fragmentable.	Realities are multiple, constructed, and holistic.
The relationship of knower to the known	Knower and known are independent, a dualism.	Knower and known are interactive, inseparable
The possibility of generalization working	Time- and context-free generalizations (nomothetic statements) are possible.	Only time- and context-bound hypotheses (idiographic statements) are possible.
The possibility of causal linkages	There are real causes, temporally precedent to or simultaneous with their effects.	All entities are in a state of mutual simultaneous shaping, so that it is impossible to distinguish causes from effects.
The role of values	Inquiry is value-free.	Inquiry is value-bound.

Note. From Naturalistic Inquiry (p. 37) by Y. S. Lincoln and E. G. Guba, 1985, Beverly Hills: Sage. Copyright 1985 by Sage Publications, Inc.

Generalization. Positivism seeks objective truths that are valid across space and time. That is, they are generalized to other situations and contexts. The interpretive view is that truths are bound to the contexts and situations where they occur, so that generalization across space and time is always problematic.

Causality. One of the basic goals of positivistic science is to be able to generalize across time and space in order to achieve a reliable level of control and prediction. This goal relies on a linear notion of causality that cannot account for the complexity of human interaction. As such, the interpretive response focuses on seeking more understanding of the ways causes and effects interact in situational contexts.

Role of values (axiology). Axiology has to do with the role of values in inquiry, since positivism seeks objective generalized truths, it takes great care in developing research methodologies that are free of investigator values. According to the interpretive assumptions, however, a value-free research methodology would be impossible because the researcher must make value decisions at every level of inquiry, beginning with the choice of a research problem.

Purpose

This essay's purpose is to consider the integration of single-subject designs founded on positivist assumptions with qualitative methods drawing on interpretive, or naturalist, axioms. The resulting integration should provide a single-subject design with increased depth of knowledge and effective understanding for rural settings.

Designs

Suppose a student appears preoccupied with violent thoughts. Further suppose that his teachers are dismayed because (a) the student is modeling violent manifestations of his thoughts to other students, (b) the classroom climate is becoming negative, (c) parents of other students are beginning to express concern, and (d) critical curricular elements are being ignored in an attempt to control the student's overt behavior(s). What designs would be appropriate to study effectiveness of programs designed to modify/manage this student's behavior?

ABAB Design

One approach would be to address the situation by:

1. Identifying an independent variable (e.g., x);
2. Observing the student without applying x;
3. Applying x;
4. Withdrawing x; and then
5. Reapplying x with little or no contact between the student and data collector.

ABAC Design

Another approach would be to combine N=1 quantitative and qualitative methods. Such a combined approach could consist of the following steps or phases:

1. Baseline 1 (A). Extend the normal baseline period by at least seven days (e.g., minimum of 10 instead of three days) to accommodate the inquirer who actively questions all relevant peers, adults, and the student himself in the classroom and at home in order to (a) investigate multiple realities, (b) triangulate the data, and (c) ferret out a research design and initial independent variable (x);

2. First intervention (B). The inquirer applies x in the classroom setting. He/she continues to monitor multiple realities in order to (a) fine-tune the design and (b) discover other independent variables (y, z,........, etc.). Formative evaluation of effects of x upon the student's undesirable behavior would also be carried out during this phase;

3. Return to baseline (A). This is a short period in which the activities in the B phase are extended by the inquirer without application of x; and,

4. Second intervention (C). Based upon information gathered by the inquirer in the first three phases, a new independent variable (y) has been shaped. The second intervention is used to compare effects of x and y; not to examine the effects of x for a second time as indicated an ABAB design. Figure 1 illustrates results of this positivist-naturalist intervention over time using mock data.

Discussion

The addition of interpretive thought and qualitative data allows the researcher to develop a more sophisticated, in-depth understanding of the research participant and the context situation. Instead of just reporting surface behaviors, referred to by some authors as "thin descriptions" (Denzin, 1989; Geertz, 1973; Ryle, 1971), the researcher now accesses the meanings of the respondent's multiple realities, and may engage in "thick interpretation" (Denzin, 1989). That is to say, the researcher may fine tune interventions by developing a more comprehensive understanding of the participant's behaviors and the meanings connected to those behaviors.

The blending of N=1 quantitative and qualitative methods seems attractive because both are (a) context situational, (b) applicable with small numbers of subjects, (c) empirical (deal with what is seen and heard), and (d) are non-traditional. As to reconciling the positivist assumptions inherent in single-subject design with the interpretive axioms supporting qualitative methods, the following synthesis of paradigms is suggested.

1. Reality (ontology): There are multiple realities, however the reality of the targeted research participant is of primary concern.
2. Knower-known relationship (epistemology): The research participant, teacher, and researcher (if different from teacher) are intertwined in interaction, calling for an understanding of differences in operating realities.
3. Generalization: Research seeks to generalize theoretically (Yin, 1989), not statistically.
4. Causality: With the added awareness of multiple realities,

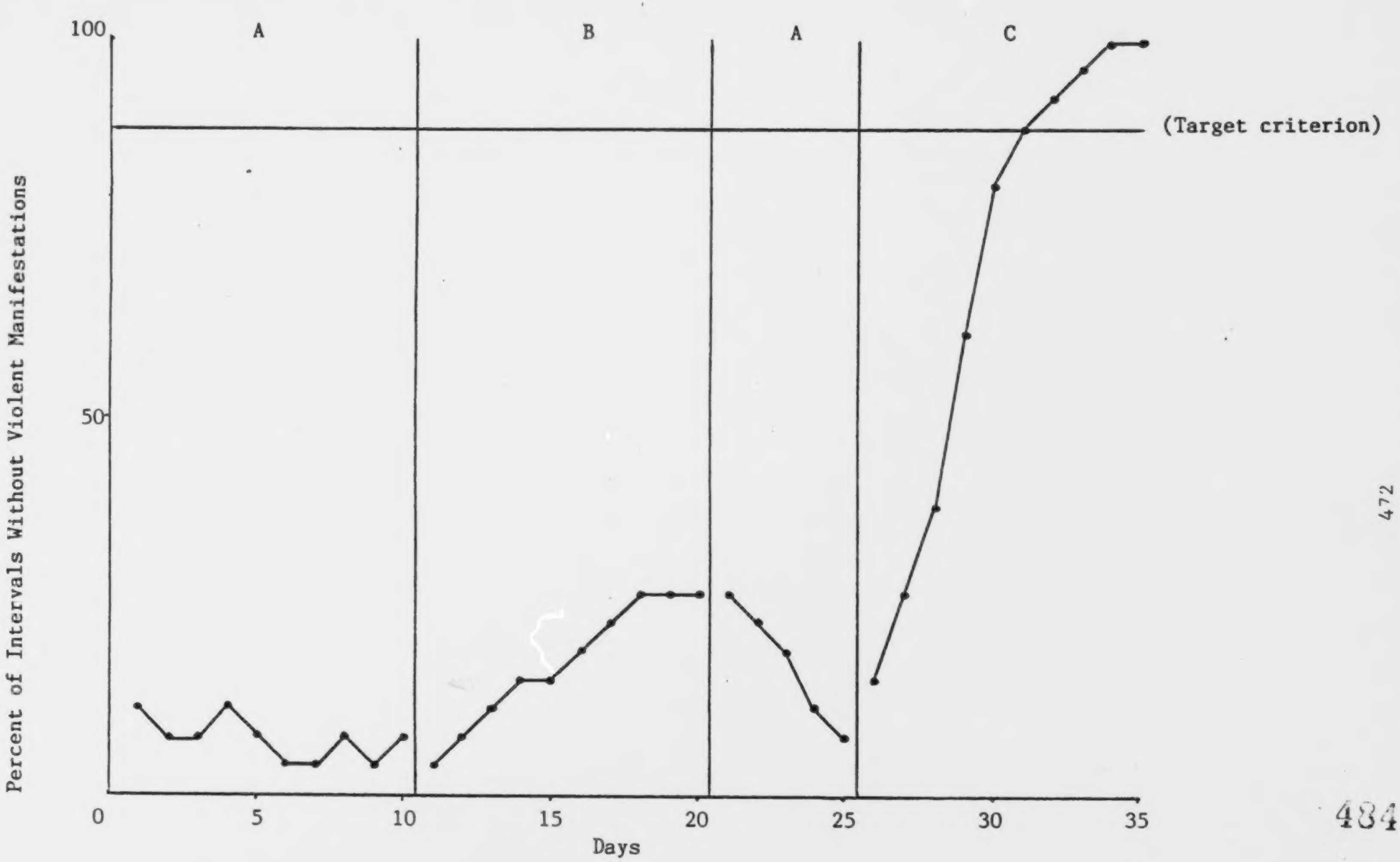

Figure 1. Percentage of intervals in which violent manifestations occured. (Mock Data)

causality should be approached as mutual simultaneous shaping, which may still demonstrate functional relationships.

5. Values (axiology): The values of everyone involved in the research are delineated in the above discussion of the multiple realities in interaction. This allows for the control of bias.

This integration of paradigms, as a suggested starting point, opens up single-subject research to the use of qualitative methods and the investigation of interpretive theoretical insights as to the meanings involved in student behaviors. This integration was attempted in a study by Hepburn and Repps (1991), in which it was determined that a 15 year old student labeled behaviorally disordered did not voluntarily present himself for involvement in academic group interaction. In not presenting himself, the teacher was limited in the amount of academic and social success that could be reinforced, in order to enhance the student's self-concept. After conducting a qualitative case study, the researchers designed an intervention that situationally induced the student to participate in academic interaction, with virtually no risk of failure. At that point the student experienced success, which was subsequently reinforced verbally with referential status from the classroom teacher. The results indicated that the student's rate of voluntary presentation increased dramatically and maintained at an above average level (see Figure 2).

This study combined qualitative methods with interpretive theoretical insight into the reality that the student experienced in the classroom. This insight allowed the researchers to connect external, observable behavior with internal states, and, subsequently, attempt to affect those internal states through a behavioral intervention.

Limitations

The major issue regarding merging of the two paradigms is temporal in nature. Specifically, the additional demands of qualitative research significantly expand single-subject design baseline and treatment phases--this would hold true across all families of N=1 designs including the ABA family which was used here as a base for discussion. However, it may be that the additional time required to arrive at qualitative understandings, such as mutual simultaneous shaping and triangulation, will result in a deeper understanding of why a behavior occurs. This information is usually not obtained as a result of single-subject inquiry with its traditional emphasis upon knower-known dualism.

Model Application

In point of fact, there are as many applications of this model as there are people being confronted with problem-solving situations of some sort. While this appears to be an oversimplication of the model's utility, a more avid in-depth understanding of its combined axiological basis, procedural format, and intra/interpersonal scrutiny of problem-solving routines would provide a more observable, reliable, and valid affirmation of its functional utility. Although this model may not be readily recognizable to some as one's household words, its procedural basis occupies every nook and cranie of life's contexts and has undoubtably been the silent partner on a daily basis in both instantaneous and long term problem-solving scenarios.

Recall that simple phone call to chat with a close friend that turned into a cold war for no apparent reason across several follow-up phone calls. On one end, the party is wondering what they have done

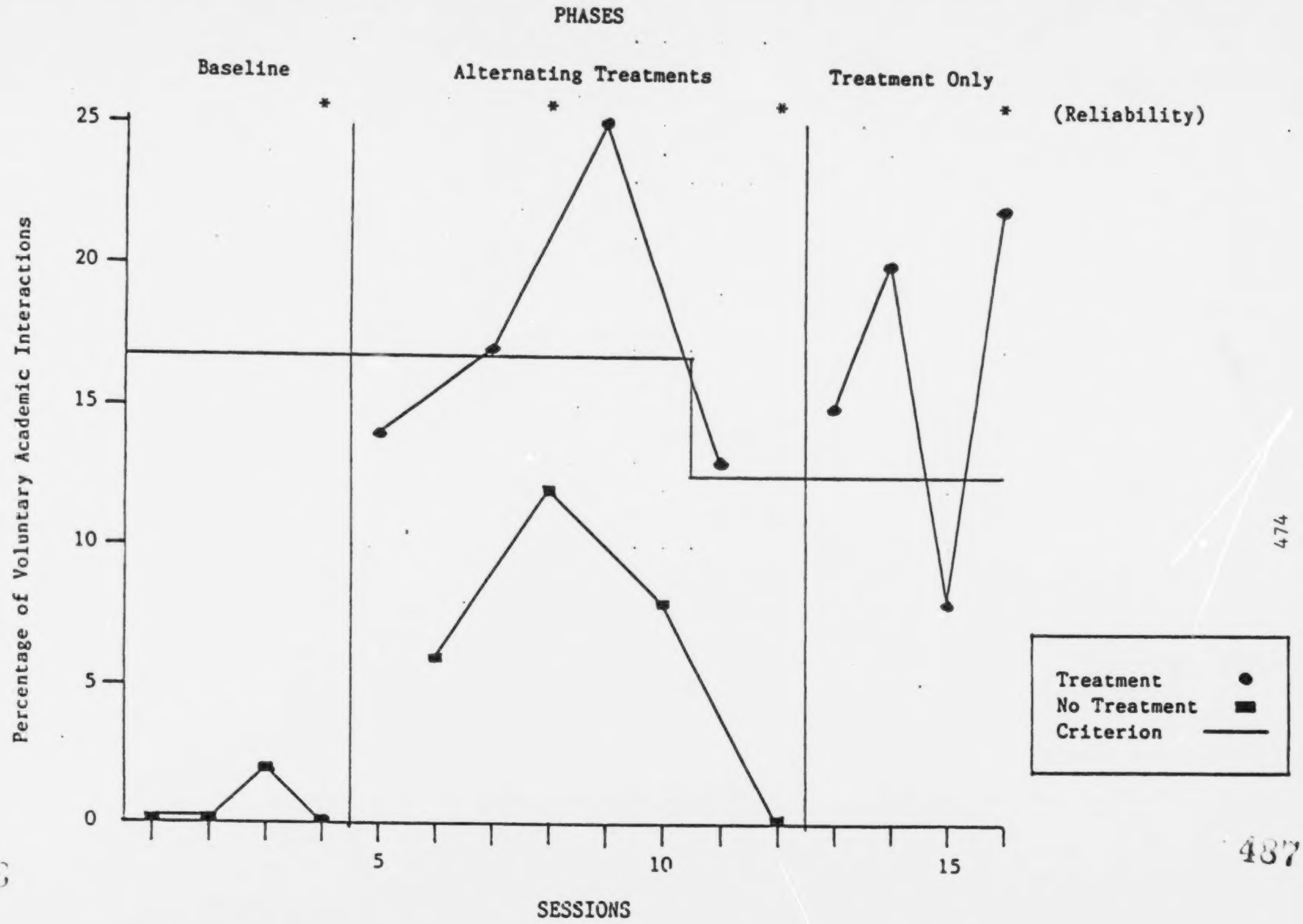

Figure 2. Results of induced self-presentation and situational referencing on the percentage of voluntary responses during 50 minute class periods.

to warrant this sudden withdrawal, while on the other end the party is feeling put upon or some other thought, the point being both parties immediately developing a theory for self preservation and alleged understanding. The questions that arise are (a) what am I going to do about it, and (b) how am I going to do it. Sound familiar? Usually what follows in varying timelines is some sort of initial response (no response is a response) that is contingent on our perception of problem severity, relational maintenance issues, and/or the need for additional information from as many discrete sources, in this case, as seems appropriate to achieve our specified goal.

Consequently, in light of new information we plan and take different action than perhaps we initially employed. One party either changed their behavior dramatically, the problem was not really a relational problem but displaced to the relation (causality), compromise, or forgiveness, and so on. What has worked in the past may not necessarily work in the future. This becomes critically important when working with children. Teachers and parents need to reconsider not only their interconnectedness within the learning contexts defined by multiple relationships with children, but also the uniqueness of how individual children assimilate developmental milestones themselves.

As was the case with the student not presenting himself for social affirmation, the teacher-inquirer sought clarification relevant to the social dynamics of the student's presenting problem. In general, this approach significantly reduces the cure becoming worse than the presenting problem, enhances a more cost-benefit use of teacher and student time, personalizes the intervention, and is existentially recursive.

Notes

[1] Portions of this essay have appeared in

Hepburn, E., & Stile, S.W. (in press). Toward an interpretive single-subject design: From thin description to thick interpretation. In S.W. Stile, N=1 for inquiry. Dubuque, IA: Kendall/Hunt.

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The American Council on Rural Special Education (ACRES) presents:

RURAL AMERICA - WHERE ALL INNOVATIONS BEGIN

March 11-13, 1993 · Savannah, Georgia · Hyatt Regency Savannah

A symposium for rural and small school educators, policy makers, administrators, teacher trainers, special educators, parents, as well as health and service personnel

Local Planning Committee Chairs

Ann Considine, Director, Coastal Area, Georgia Learning Resources System
Linda Morgan, Child Serve Coordinator, Georgia Learning Resources System

Local Planning Committee Members

Allen Harwood, Marguerite Oliver-Hay, Cathy Webb, Bert Griffin, Philip Wright, Stephanie Dirst, Susan Parker, Barbara McSwain, Lynda Hale, Jesse Stewart, Faye Waugh, Lisa Godwin-Jones, Lynn Taylor, Jim Whiting, & Don Enis

ACRES Symposium

Rural America:
Where All Innovations Begin

March 11-13, 1993 · Hyatt Regency Hotel · Savannah, Georgia

Thank you for your attendance at this major national, rural education event. Bringing together rural educators, preservice educators, administrators, related service providers, parents, and policy makers, the symposium will address critical issues related to serving rural students and training rural educators and administrators. We wish you a productive, enlightening, and enjoyable conference!

General Symposium Chairs
Diane Montgomery, Oklahoma State University
Kay S. Bull, Oklahoma State University

Conference Coordinators
M. Winston Egan, University of Utah
Joan Sebastian, University of Utah

Conference Assistants
Joan Christensen, University of Utah
Jack Mayhew, University of Utah
Brian Winsor, University of Utah

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General Sessions

Thursday, March 11

"There is no magic!"

Zebe Y. C. Schmitt, Director of the Governors Council on Developmental Disabilities for the State of Georgia

This presentation discusses the value of children with disabilities being included in a regular classroom and the community at large. She shares her personal experiences in rural Georgia; and, in the process, communicates how solutions to problems children with disabilities encounter can impact a child's self-image for a lifetime.

Friday, March 12

"On Your Feet"

Spencer Bartley, President of POWERS Coalition Inc. & Bartley & Associates

This presentation will be motivational in content emphasizing that one person can make a difference. It is never too late! All obstacles are opportunities. All of us have the "POWER" inside of us to get on our feet and change our existing society for the better. It has nothing to do with age, sex, race, color of one's skin, or a disability---it has to do with our attitude.

Saturday, March 13

"It is all in the eye of the beholder!"

Ethyl L. Ault, Director of Exceptional Children, Georgia Council of Administrators for Special Education, 1993 Administrator of the Year.

In our changing society the need for a collaborative process to foster stress reduction, empowerment and recruitment/retention of educators will be discussed.

"You can make a difference in ACRES"

Jerry White, Advisory Board Chair, American Council on Rural Special Education

Here is your chance to contribute to the growth and renewal of ACRES.

Conference Highlights

- Hot Topic Sessions (Wednesday Night)
- Variety of Concurrent Sessions Addressing All Aspects of Rural and Special Education (Thursday through Saturday)
    - Technology
    - Preservice/Inservice
    - Administration & School Reform
    - Parents
    - Low Incidence Disabilities
    - Early Childhood
    - Transition
- Old-Timers/Newcomers Reception (Thursday)
- Topical Tables with Complimentary Lunches (Thursday & Saturday)
- Annual Awards (Friday)
- Low Country Boil (Thursday Night, Don't miss it! Register today!)
    - Fresh Shrimp
    - Sweet Corn on the Cob
    - Jambalaya Sausage
    - Cajun Spices

ACRES Symposium at a Glance

CONFERENCE AGENDA

Wednesday, March 10

8:00 - 5:00	ACRES Board Meeting
4:00 - 6:00	Registration Open
6:30 - 8:30	Hot Topics Evening

Thursday, March 11

7:30 - 8:30	RSEQ Board Meeting
7:30 - 12:00	Registration Open
7:30 - 8:30	Complimentary Continental Breakfast
8:30 - 10:00	Concurrent Sessions
10:00 - 10:15	Break (coffee only)
10:15 - 11:45	General Session
12:00 - 1:30	Topical Tables with Complimentary Lunch
1:30 - 2:30	Concurrent Sessions
2:30 - 2:45	Break
2:45 - 3:45	Concurrent Sessions
3:45 - 4:00	Break
4:00 - 5:00	Concurrent Sessions
5:00 - 6:30	Oldtimers/Newcomers Reception (Cash Bar)
7:30 - 9:30	Low Country Boil (Please sign-up at the Registration Booth)

Friday, March 12

8:30 - 10:00	ACRES Board Meeting
7:30 - 12:00	Registration Open
7:30 - 8:30	Complimentary Continental Breakfast
8:30 - 10:00	Walk Around Poster Sessions
10:00 - 10:15	Break (coffee only)
10:15 - 11:45	General Session
11:45 - 1:30	Lunch Break on the River Front
1:30 - 2:30	Concurrent Sessions
2:30 - 2:45	Break
2:45 - 3:45	Concurrent Sessions
3:45 - 4:00	Break
4:00 - 5:00	Concurrent Sessions
6:00 -	Night on the River Front on Your Own (see listing of restaurants in your registration materials)

Saturday, March 13

7:30 - 10:00	Registration Open
7:30 - 8:30	Complimentary Continental Breakfast
8:30 - 10:00	ACRES Board Meeting
8:30 - 10:00	Concurrent Sessions
10:00 - 10:15	Break (coffee only)
10:15 - 11:45	General Session
12:00 - 1:30	Topical Tables with Complimentary Lunch
1:30 - 2:30	Concurrent Sessions
2:30 - 2:45	Break
2:45 - 3:45	Concurrent Sessions
3:45 - 4:00	Break
4:00 - 5:00	Concurrent Sessions
6:00 - 8:00	ACRES Board Meeting
6:00 -	Night on the River Front on Your Own (see listing of restaurants in your registration materials)

Sunday, March 14

8:00-12:00	ACRES Board Meeting

WEDNESDAY

Wednesday, 8:00 - 5:00, Westbrook Board Room
ACRES Advisory Board Meeting

Wednesday, 4:00 - 6:00, Registration Booth
Registration Open

Wednesday, 6:30 - 8:30, Trustees Hall
Hot Topics, Moderators: Kay Bull & Diane Montgomery

Wednesday, 6:30 - 8:30, Trustees Hall
Hot Topic: The Hmong and Southeast Asian Immigrants in Rural Areas: Critical Issues in Special Education
Landa Iverson, California State University, Judy Krabo, Raisin City Schools.
The presentation will explore the various Southeast Asian Immigrant populations and their cultural values and mores toward children with exceptionalities, specifically in rural America.

Wednesday, 6:30 - 8:30, Trustees Hall
Hot Topic: Identification of the Advantages and Disadvantages of Special Education Service Delivery in Rural Kentucky as a Basis for Generating Solutions to Problems.
Belva Collins, University of Kentucky.
This presentation will provide a model for generating solutions to problems in rural special education service delivery through identification of advantages and disadvantages that may be unique to geographic areas.

Wednesday, 6:30 - 8:30, Trustees Hall
Hot Topic: Use of Alternative Funding by Rural Schools for Supplemental Programs which Address Current Social Issues.
Rosalie Schenck, Special Education Practicum Coordinator, New Mexico State University.
The presentation will discuss seeking funding, the funding search process, school district grant writing procedures for consistency and planning, building the grant writing team, integration of special programs into regular curricula, and building community partnerships or teams.

Wednesday, 6:30 - 8:30, Trustees Hall
Discussion of "Winners All. . ."
David Stockford, Maine Department of Education and Cultural Affairs.
The National Association of State Boards of Education October, 1992 publication, "Winners All: A Call for Inclusive Schools" makes recommendations for creating a system that will support change and outlines the recommendations for education from the NASBE Study Group on Special Education. The group recognizes the progress which has been made, but believes it is time to make our education system work better for all students. The checklists included in the publication for creating an inclusive system will be discussed.

Wednesday, 6:30-8:30, Trustees Hall
Reforming Special Education
Anne Fishkin, Michael Sullivan, West Virginia Graduate College.
This discussion will review the issues of school reform concerning special educational services. Multiple perspectives will be offered.

Wednesday, 6:30 - 8:30, Trustee's Hall
Transitional Processes in Rural Areas
Robert G. Monahan, Sheila Marino Lander University.
This discussion will review the issues and concerns for providing adequate services to young adults with disabilities to prepare them to make transitions from high school to other post-secondary opportunities.

THURSDAY

Thursday, 7:30 - 8:30, Westbrook
RSEQ Board Meeting

Thursday, 7:30 - 12:00 Registration Booth
Registration Open

THURSDAY, 7:30 - 8:30, PREFUNCTION NORTH
COMPLIMENTARY CONTINENTAL BREAKFAST

THURSDAY, 8:30 - 10:00, CONCURRENT SESSIONS

Thursday, 8:30 - 10:00, Verelst
Learning Visions - A Rural Dropout Prevention Demonstration
Margaret Phelps, Ann Franklin, Tennessee Tech,
Dwight Hare, Mississippi State University,
Virginia Ward, Jackson Co. Schools, Tennessee.
Learning Visions, a K-12 intervention program for at-risk youth, includes curriculum enhancement, modified instruction, attendance monitoring and encouragement, parent education, and enhanced social services.

Thursday, 8:30 - 10:00, Percival
Understanding Outcomes for Emotionally Impaired Students
James Mishler, Special Education Supervisor, Hersey, Michigan, Jeffery Beckstrom, Special Education Teacher, Hersey, Michigan.
A presentation and discussion of the suggested State of Michigan Outcomes for Emotionally Impaired Students. Their purpose and implementation in several settings will be discussed.

Thursday, 8:30 - 10:00, Vernon
Transition Goals and Objectives: Missouri's View of the Future
Diane Worrell, University of Missouri - Columbia.
This presentation will provide results of a 1991-92 transition activities survey in Missouri. Participants will also receive information and training on writing transition goals and objectives.

Thursday, 8:30 - 10:00, Sloane
Are We Barking Up the Wrong Tree with ADD? Important Considerations in the Diagnosis and Treatment of Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder for Rural Education
Richard Strasburger, West Virginia University,
Margaret Turner, Davis and Elkins College.
This presentation will present an interdisciplinary rural service model that incorporates current federal regulations and medical treatment protocols with the realities of rural educational settings.

Thursday, 8:30 - 10:00, Waterfront North
Educating Appalachian Rural Disadvantaged Gifted Children.
Howard Spicker, Indiana University.
The session will describe curriculum modifications for disadvantaged rural gifted children including regular classroom enrichment activities, interdisciplinary units, video portfolios and an electronic telecommunication system for accessing information and communicating across ten rural elementary schools.

Thursday, 8:30 - 10:00, Waterfront South
Rural Schools: Resources for Reform
Robin Lambert, University of Alabama.
Small schools in rural areas have many characteristics which position them to inform and lead national reform efforts. "Rural Schools: Resources for Reform" will help schools identify and use their own characteristics to improve education, promote community well-being and development, and disseminate their efforts and successes through the broader educational community.

THURSDAY, 10:00 - 10:15, Prefunction North
COFFEE BREAK

THURSDAY, 10:15- 11:45, Ballroom A
GENERAL SESSION
"There is no magic!"
Zebe Y. C. Schmitt, Director of the Governors Council on Developmental Disabilities for the State of Georgia.
This presentation discusses the value of children with disabilities being included in a regular classroom and the community at large. She shares her personal experiences in rural Georgia; and, in the process, communicates how solutions to problems children with disabilities encounter can impact a child's self-image for a lifetime.

THURSDAY, 12:00 - 1:30, BALLROOM B & C
TOPICAL TABLES WITH COMPLIMENTARY LUNCH

THURSDAY, 1:30 - 2:30, CONCURRENT SESSIONS

Thursday, 1:30 - 2:30, Verelst
Simulation in Collaborative Teaming: "How to" not "what to"
Luise Savage, Kevin Miller, Laura Reissner, Mary Seman, West Virginia University.
Two scenarios, one using interactive teaming to solve a classroom problem; the other, using cooperative teaching to present a lesson will be demonstrated. Audience participation through discussion and critiquing of interactions.

Thursday, 1:30 - 2:30, Percival
Interactive Technology to Teach Rural Social Workers about Special Needs Children and Their Families
Linda Thurston, Nancy Knupfer, Cia Vershelden, Janice Denning, Kansas State University.
Interactive computer-based instruction with video discs is being used to educate social workers about developmental disabilities. Instruction for those who work with special education students and personnel will be presented.

Thursday, 1:30 - 2:30, Vernon
Serving Rural Preschool and Young Children with Disabilities
Veronica Gold, Ellen Williams, Steven Russell, Bowling Green State University.
This presentation focuses on problems of rural professionals serving preschool children with disabilities and possible solutions to these problems.

Thursday, 1:30 - 2:30, Sloane
South Carolina Cross-Age Tutoring: Communities of Children
Elspeth Stuckey, Director, S. C. Cross-Age Tutoring, Clemson University; Dr. Nelson Perry, Branchville Schools, Columbia, South Carolina.
South Carolina cross-age tutoring is a veteran project in rural schools which matches older at-risk students with younger at-risk students. Together, the students improve their academic abilities as they create communities of children.

Thursday, 1:30 - 2:30, Savannah
Old Bottles, New Wine?
Edmund Coombe, West Virginia University.
An examination of transition needs in rural areas and how one state has expanded services of sheltered workshops to help meet these needs.

Thursday, 1:30 - 2:30, Ballroom A
The Parent Connection Project
Lee Alvis, Anne Fritz, Flint Hills Special Education Cooperative, Emporia, Kansas.
A project to encourage more communication between schools and families of students with special needs.

THURSDAY, 2:30 - 2:45, BREAK

THURSDAY, 2:45 - 3:45, CONCURRENT SESSIONS

Thursday, 2:45 - 3:45, Verelst
Using Multicultural Education to Enhance the Self- Worth of Rural At-Risk Students
Doris Fitzgerald, Lander University,
Gaston Bloodsworth, University of South Carolina at Aiken.
A model for using integrated social studies and language arts multi-cultural materials to enhance the self- worth of rural at-risk students will be shared.

Thursday, 2:45 - 3:45, Percival
Together We Can
Donald Washburn, Superintendent, Dawson-Bryant District, Ironton, Ohio.
Through the use of video tapes and user-friendly parent handbooks, parents view and discuss everyday school-related situations encompassing self-esteem, how to study, learning to read and work with numbers and home-school communication.

Thursday, 2:45 - 3:45, Vernon
Preparing Rural Special Educators Using Distance Learning Technology
Linda C. Gamble, Phyllis Fischer, University of Maine at Farmington.
This session will present the design of the project "Preparing Rural Special Educators Using Distance Learning Technology" which provides accessible baccalaureate level education to persons who are currently indigenous to and/or employed in rural Maine.

Thursday, 2:45 - 3:45, Savannah
Transition Services for Rural Secondary Students with Developmental Disabilities: A Model for Employment Success
Sandra Miller, SUNY Geneseo.
This presentation provides an overview of a rural transition service model incorporating student/family future planning, market analysis, interagency collaboration, and employability outcomes.

Thursday, 2:45 - 3:45, Sloane
Section 504: Requirements and Compliance
Mary Susan Fishbaugh, Eastern Montana College.
This workshop will provide an overview of Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973 as well as step-by-step compliance procedures. Participants will receive a copy of Montana's Technical Assistance Manual for adaptation in their home states. The manual includes sample forms and policy statements.

Thursday, 2:45 - 3:45, Ballroom A
Creating the Magic
Zebe Y. C. Schmitt, Director, Governors Council on Developmental Disabilities, Georgia.
This session provides conference participants an opportunity to speak with Ms. Schmitt about personal questions or issues from her keynote address.

THURSDAY, 3:45 - 4:00, BREAK

THURSDAY, 4:00 - 5:00, CONCURRENT SESSIONS

Thursday, 4:00 - 5:00, Verelst
A Day Late and a Dollar Short: A Survivalist's Approach for a Transdisciplinary-Transitional Curriculum that Affects Functional Literacy with Rural Students Considered to be At-Risk or having Mild Disabilities
Robert Gerke, Jack Cole, New Mexico State University.
Rural perspectives of functional literacy and transition issues of students considered at-risk are discussed within a framework that utilizes both community- developed competencies and a transdisciplinary instructional model.

Thursday, 4:00 - 5:00, Percival
Use of Negotiation and Mediation in Special Education
Robert Morgan, James Whorton, University of Southern Mississippi.
Conflict resolution through negotiation and mediation are problem solving processes which facilitate an atmosphere in which conflicting parties can resolve their disputes. Both negotiation and mediation processes and their application to disputes in special education are described.

Thursday, 4:00 - 5:00, Vernon
Mathematic Activities for Rural Classrooms in Tennessee: Development, Implementation, and Evaluation Results in Grades 5-8
Craig Howley, Sue Boren, University of Tennessee.
This presentation will describe the origin, use, and effects of an effort to supplement textbook-based instruction with teacher-developed mathematics in regular education mathematics classrooms in the middle grades of about 20 rural schools in Tennessee.

Thursday, 4:00 - 5:00, Waterfront North
Success & Restructuring Through Technology Is Here - Don't wait for the year 2001!
Audray Holm and Hal Titen, University of Hawaii at Manoa, Multimedia interactive programs utilizing laser disc and hyper media technology to restructure classrooms through literature, employability skills, cross curriculum activities, networking, as well as teacher and student authoring.

FRIDAY

Friday, 7:30 - 12:00, Registration Booth
Registration Open

Friday, 8:30 - 10:00, Westbrook
ACRES Advisory Board Meeting

FRIDAY, 7:30 - 8:30, PREFUNCTION NORTH COMPLIMENTARY CONTINENTAL BREAKFAST

FRIDAY, 8:30 - 10:00, MEZZANINE POSTER SESSION WALK-AROUND

Friday, 8:30 - 10:00, Mezzanine
No. 1: Adapting Text to Meet Literacy Needs of Special Learners in Rural Settings
Robert Monahan, Sheila Marino, Lander University, Rosemary Miller, Beaufort County Schools, Greenwood, South Carolina.
To review the research and array of methods for adapting text to meet the literacy needs of special learners in developing a concept of reading that focuses on comprehension and the development of semantic, syntactic and graphophonic knowledge will be presented.

Friday, 8:30 - 10:00, Mezzanine

No. 2: Public Schools and Universities Can Cooperate

Robert Steinmiller, Georgine Steinmiller, Henderson State University.

This presentation will demonstrate how collaboration efforts between university and public schools through alliances can be mutually beneficial, especially in a rural setting.

Friday, 8:30 - 10:00, Mezzanine

No. 3: Survey of Attitudes of Practitioners and Preservice Special Educators Regarding Innovation and Reform in Rural Schools

James Yanok, Ohio University.

Findings from a field study will be reported which reveal the comparative opinions and attitudes of classroom instructors and teacher trainees within rural southeast Ohio.

Friday, 8:30 - 10:00, Mezzanine

No. 4: Northwest Missouri Assistance Technology Project

Gerald Wright and Christine Schneider, Northwest Missouri State University.

The project was designed to increase the use of assistive technology in rural Northwest Missouri, in public schools, higher education and day programs.

Friday, 8:30 - 10:00, Mezzanine

No. 5: Rural Necessity as the Mother of Invention: Using Collaboration to Extend Services for Autism and Low Incidence Disabilities

Ellen Williams, Veronica Gold, Steven Russell, Bowling Green State University.

This presentation focuses on rural service delivery needs/problems/techniques related to educating students with autism/low incidence disabilities. Collaboration techniques will be highlighted.

Friday, 8:30 - 10:00, Mezzanine

No. 6: Educating America's Migrant and Seasonal Farm Workers: Lost in the Shuffle?

Edward Roeske, University of Tennessee.

A federally funded program designed to assist migrant and seasonal farm workers attain the GED and social skills necessary to further enhance their lives.

Friday, 8:30 - 10:00, Mezzanine

No. 7: Enhancing the Career Development of Rural Students

Richard B. Carter, Northwestern State University, Natchitoches, Louisiana.

Co-author: Robert Bowman.

A general method of infusing career development activities into the regular curricula will be described along with a systematic model of career decision making.

Friday, 8:30 - 10:00, Mezzanine

No. 8: ESE Personnel Recruitment and Retention in Small and Rural Districts

Joyce Menz, Christine Chancey, North East Florida Educational Consortium/Institute for Small and Rural Districts.

This session will describe efforts of the Institute for Small and Rural Districts in the area of Exceptional Student Education personnel recruitment and retention. The Institute serves 27 Florida school districts with student populations of fewer than 7,000 students and is part of a Florida Department of Education Bureau of ESE initiative to assist small and rural districts. Materials and ideas will be shared.

Friday, 8:30 - 10:00, Mezzanine

No. 9: A Comparison of Perceived Causes of Dropping Out: ACRES Members, School Psychologists, Principals, and Superintendents

Diane Montgomery, Kay S. Bull, Keith Salyer, David McIntosh, Oklahoma State University, Department of Applied Behavioral Studies.

Data collected from ACRES members (N=269), school psychologists (N=444), principals (N=543), superintendents (N=365) on perceived causes of dropping out are reported. Data were interpreted in terms of perceived conflicts between causes and the implications of these conflicts in terms of provision of services.

Friday, 8:30 - 10:00, Mezzanine

No. 10: Implementing a Statewide Augmentative Communication Project

Kim Hartsell, Project Manager, Georgia AAC Project, Marlene Bryar, Coordinator, Georgia Dept. of Education: Division for Exceptional Students.

This session will describe a statewide technical support system that has been developed to assist local school personnel in providing augmentative communication intervention programs.

Friday, 8:30 - 10:00, Mezzanine

No. 11: Rural-Based Technical Education: The Rizal Technological and Polytechnic Institute Case, Status and Prospects

Mabel Lopez, Jean R. San Jose, Rizal Technological and Polytechnic Institute.

Co-authors: Demetria A. San Juan and Mercedes F. Timtiman.

This paper presents the status and prospects of a Technical Institute addressing special concerns on technical agriculture as a means to introduce an innovative approach.

Friday, 8:30 - 10:00, Mezzanine

No. 12: Team Assessment of Infants in the Rural Setting

Marc Evans, Regional Coordinator, Stillwater, Oklahoma.

This poster presentation will provide administrators, clinicians and interventionists a plan to conduct assessments of infants and very young children in the rural setting. The plan is based on the philosophies of SoonerStart, Oklahoma's early intervention program, which is an interagency collaboration of the State Departments of Education, Health, Human Services and Mental Health and Substance Abuse.

Friday, 8:30 - 10:00, Mezzanine

No. 13: Preparation of Adapted Physical Educators in the Rural Setting: An Interdisciplinary and Non-Categorical Preservice Curricular Model

Gloria Palma, Jim Bergman, Everett Bruce, North Carolina A&T State University.

This presentation is focused on a unique and innovative preservice curricular model where rural education, technology and adapted physical education are integrated. The purpose is to train preservice students, at the masters level, to provide quality physical education services for rural-based individuals with disabilities in the state of North Carolina.

Friday, 8:30 - 10:00, Mezzanine
No. 14: Makaton Vocabulary - Unlocking Communication
Marilyn Schuster, Teacher, Tucker, Georgia.
June H. Wilder, Makathon Vocabulary.
Speech, signs and symbols are combined to teach the Makaton Vocabulary Language Program. From infancy to adulthood, this program addresses 911 communication needs.

Friday, 8:30 - 10:00, Mezzanine
No. 15: Resilience in Rural At-Risk Students
Mary Finley, Doctoral Student, Southern Illinois University - Carbondale.
Community development theory, defined as enhancing people's capacity for effective decision-making, can be applied to the school's task of providing collaborative services for at-risk students.

Friday, 8:30 - 10:00, Mezzanine
No. 16: Abandoning Retention - What Can Take its Place?
Diane Woodrum, Robert Kefferstan, West Virginia University.
This presentation will focus upon practical alternative solutions to retention. It will center upon applications most suitable for rural school systems.

Friday, 8:30 - 10:00, Mezzanine
No. 17: Sharing Best Practices and Programs in Exceptional Student Education in Small and Rural Districts
Christine Chancey, Supervisor, Florida Diagnostic and Learning Resources/Institute for Small and Rural Districts.
Joyce Menz, North East Florida Educational Consortium/Institute for Small and Rural Districts.
This session describes efforts of the Institute for Small and Rural Districts to identify and share via a database and network best practices and programs in small, rural district Exceptional Student Education programs in Florida. The Institute is part of a Florida Department of Education Bureau of ESE initiative to support small rural districts, ESE administrators, and programs.

Friday, 8:30 - 10:00, Mezzanine
No. 18: Teacher Directed Curriculum Evaluation for Rural Special Education: A Fourth Generation Model
Eric Hepburn, June LeCrone, New Mexico State University.
Through the use of monologue interpretation (which is sort of a cross between Our Town and the United Nations), the application of a collaborative, negotiated model for curriculum evaluation is presented. The discussion will emphasize the teacher as the evaluation facilitator, and the importance of using community networks.

Friday, 8:30 - 10:00, Mezzanine
No. 19: Youth Opportunities Unlimited: The Results of a Three Year Study
Georgine Steinmiller, Robert Steinmiller, Henderson State University.
Y.O.U. is a high school drop-out prevention program for at-risk students. This presentation will describe the program and share the three year research results.

FRIDAY, 10:00 - 10:15, Prefunction North
COFFEE BREAK

FRIDAY, 10:15 - 11:45, Ballroom A
GENERAL SESSION
"On Your Feet"
Spencer Bartley, President of POWERS Coalition Inc. & Bartley & Associates.
This presentation will be motivational in content emphasizing that one person can make a difference. It is never too late! All obstacles are opportunities. All of us have the "POWER" inside of us to get on our feet and change our existing society for the better. It has nothing to do with age, sex, race, color of one's skin, or a disability---it has to do with our attitude.

FRIDAY, 11:45 - 1:30 P.M.
LUNCH BREAK ON THE RIVER FRONT

FRIDAY, 1:30 - 2:30, CONCURRENT SESSIONS

Friday, 1:30 - 2:20, Vereist
Head Start for College - A Rural Innovation
Margaret Turner, Davis and Elkins College.
This presentation will focus on a 4-week summer program designed to better prepare LD students prior to entering college. This is a result of a collaborative program established between area high schools and the college to introduce rural high school LD students to the college option.

Friday, 1:30 - 2:30, Percival
Rural Issues for Children and Families Affected by Epilepsy
Gail Johnston-Ellis, Epilepsy Foundation of America.
Become familiar with the unique issues facing rural school children with epilepsy and their families. Techniques for assisting these children and supporting their families will be presented.

Friday, 1:30 - 2:30, Vernon
Intensive Family Based Services That Work in Dealing with High- Risk Students and Dysfunctional Families
William Young, Linda Steck, SERTCC.
Intensive family- based services not only deal with the individual child but also help to correct many situations found in a dysfunctional family. By working with the entire family much progress can be made - healing the whole picture instead of just one small part making it possible to keep the family together as a family unit.

Friday, 1:30 - 2:30, Sloane
Interpretive Single-Subject Design: A Research Tool for Practitioners - Guided Applied Inquiry in Rural Settings
Eric Hepburn, Stephan Stile, New Mexico State University.
Interpretive single-subject design is an applied intervention research approach that combines qualitative and (non-statistical) quantitative strategies. The discussion will emphasize how the approach can be conducted by classroom practitioners, resulting in effective single-subject interventions and an expanded, holistic knowledge base.

Friday, 1:30 - 2:30, Savannah

Preparing Women for Leadership Roles in Rural Education
Beverly Irby, Genevieve Brown, Evelyn Farmer, Sam Houston State University.
Presenters will describe a field-based course and subsequent support system which (1) encourage women to seek educational leadership positions in rural settings; (2) provide opportunities for professional and personal development; and (3) address the needs of female administrators in the rural culture.

FRIDAY, 2:30 - 2:45, BREAK

FRIDAY, 2:45 - 3:45, CONCURRENT SESSIONS

Friday, 2:45 - 3:45, Verelst
Practitioner Perspectives of Early Childhood Special Educators: Implications for Preservice and Inservice Preparations
Gretchen Butera, West Virginia University.
This presentation presents qualitative data on practitioner perspectives regarding issues of practice in early childhood special education students. Recommendations for inservice and preservice activities are presented. Formative data regarding personnel preparation activities are also presented.

Friday, 2:45 - 3:45, Percival
Hand in Hand: Supporting Change Through Practitioner - College Partnerships
Eileen Corbitt, Potsdam College (SUNY),
Donna Barrett, West Hartsville Elementary School.
Teachers and college faculty together can be a force for change by establishing long-term informal relationships through which both gain support and information. Attenders will be invited to brainstorm other applications of the "hand-in-hand" philosophy.

Friday, 2:45 - 3:45, Vernon
Strategies for Special Education Inclusion in General Education: Implications for Rural Schools
Richard Tompkins, Deborah Jolly, Pat Cooper, SEDL, Austin, Texas.
Nancy Dreher, West Feliciana Parish Schools, Louisiana.
Two rural school districts served as longitudinal case study sites to assess the efficacy of integrating special education into mainstream settings. Observations will be presented highlighting implications for other rural school districts. The presentation will be of particular interest to rural administrators and supervisors.

Friday, 2:45 - 3:45, Sloane
"Let's work together!" [Note: This is a two session presentation. It continues during the 4:00 - 5:00 time slot.]
Spencer Bartley, President of POWERS Coalition Inc. & Bartley & Associates
This presentation will express the need for and explain how the educational, governmental, "nonprofits," and business systems can ban together for a resulting "Win-Win" situation. It will explain how we can change our attitude about all our young people, and how we can promote different societal changes together. Innovation is no more than an attitude away.

Friday, 2:45 - 3:45, Savannah
CAPPED (Career Awareness Promotes Positive Educational Development) CAN MAKE A DIFFERENCE IN RURAL AMERICA SCHOOLS
Elizabeth Sears, Teacher of Students with Emotional/Behavioral Disorders, Savannah, Georgia.
A video of the CAPPED Program in action, which shows the structure, techniques and activities provided for students with emotional/behavioral disordered students and regular students.

FRIDAY, 3:45 - 4:00, BREAK

FRIDAY, 4:00 - 5:00, CONCURRENT SESSIONS

Friday, 4:00 - 5:00, Verelst
A Recipe for Successful Regular Classroom Integration
Joyce Meikamp, Robert Russell, West Virginia University.
Practical strategies for regular classroom integration of exceptional children will be presented. Development of working partnerships between special and regular education are included.

Friday, 4:00 - 5:00, Percival
Using Law-Related Education as a Lifeline for Rural At-Risk Students
Kathleen Gruenhagen, North Georgia College,
Betty Leslein, Cass High School.
This presentation will provide a basic introduction to the concept of LRE together with directions for local implementation. Project Nexus will be featured.

Friday, 4:00 - 5:00, Vernon
Innovations for Rural School Districts in Transition Services: Effective Programming will Lead to Effective Transitioning
Lynda Walls, Linda Price, University of Washington.
Secondary special education programs must focus on diversity and training options in rural populations. This presentation focuses on local community resources; how to utilize and how to implement programs.

Friday, 4:00 - 5:00, Sloane
"Let's work together!"
Spencer Bartley, President of POWERS Coalition Inc. & Bartley & Associates
This is a continuation of the 2:45 - 3:45 session.

Friday, 4:00 - 5:00, Savannah
Quality Television Instruction: What are its essential components?
Winston Egan, Joan Sebastian, Marshall Welch, Brent Page, Zandile Nkabinde, University of Utah.
This session focuses on the question: "What constitutes quality instruction delivered through television?" Experienced administrators and television instructors were brought together to talk about their views and related questions. These views were captured on video tape, transcribed for analysis and subsequently reviewed by five researchers.

Friday, 6:00 - 8:00, Westbrook
ACRES Board Meeting

SATURDAY

SATURDAY, 7:30 - 8:30, PREFUNCTION NORTH COMPLIMENTARY CONTINENTAL BREAKFAST

Saturday, 7:30 - 10:00, Registration Booth
Registration Open

Saturday, 8:30 - 10:00
ACRES Board Meeting

SATURDAY, 8:30 - 10:00, CONCURRENT SESSIONS

Saturday, 8:30 - 10:00, Verelst
Ethnosociology: An Interdisciplinary, Interpretive Research Model for Inquiry in Rural Special Education
Eric Hepburn, New Mexico State University.
Ethnosociology is a research perspective influenced by interpretive anthropology, ethnomethodology and existential sociology. The development of the model, and its potential for expanding the knowledge base in rural special education will be discussed. Results of research applying the model will also be presented.

Saturday, 8:30 - 10:00, Percival
Educational Partnerships in Rural Settings
Mary Jean Herzog, Robert Pittman, Don Chalker, Bill Clauss, Jack McFadden, Casey Henley, Lisa Bloom, Western Carolina University.
This symposium considers public school/university partnerships based on models of collaboration and collegiality as vehicles for influencing change in rural education.

Saturday, 8:30 - 10:00, Vernon
Experiences in Establishing a Rural Professional Development School: First Efforts
Lawrence A. Beard, Daniel R. Vertrees, Juanie L. Noland, Kathryn Noori, Danjuma R. Saulawa, Tuskegee University.
The purpose of this presentation is to share first-year results of one university's and local school system's effort to establish a professional development school.

Saturday, 8:30 - 10:00, Sloane
Service Integration in Rural and Small Schools
Robert Bhaerman, Co-Director, Rural Education Initiative Research for Better Schools, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.
This presentation focuses on the knowledge base on which rural practitioners can base their service integration policies and programs and guidelines for designing their strategies.

SATURDAY, 10:00 - 10:15, Prefunction North COFFEE BREAK

SATURDAY, 10:15 - 11:45, Ballroom A GENERAL SESSION

"You can make a difference in ACRES!"
Jerry White, ACRES Advisory Board Chair
Here is your chance to contribute to the growth and renewal of the ACRES. Join with Jerry, Joan, Winn, Suzzanne, Terry, Bill, Barbara, Jack, June, Bonnie, David, Diane, and Ruth in making this one of the best sessions of the conference.

SATURDAY, 12:00 - 1:30, BALLROOM B & C TOPICAL TABLES WITH COMPLIMENTARY LUNCH

SATURDAY, 1:30 - 2:30, CONCURRENT SESSIONS

Saturday, 1:30 - 2:30, Verelst
Maine's Special Education Director's Academy
Richard Abramson, Kerry Priest, Debra Houston, Marcye Gray, Augusta, Maine.
The Maine Association of Directors of Services for Children with Exceptionalities, in conjunction with the Maine Department of Education, Division of Special Education, has sponsored a week-long Academy for Special Education Administrators. The Academy has focused on 5-8 strands or topics that were developed as part of a statewide survey of practitioners that identified "hot topics" and strands that required in-depth program development.

Saturday, 1:30 - 2:30, Percival
Incorporating Problem Solving and Social Skills Instruction in Rural Programs for Adolescents with Behavior Disorders
Gia Deasy, Lecturer/Behavior Consultant,
Cheryl H. Zaccagnini, West Virginia University.
This presentation focuses on the development and implementation of a social problem solving and social skills training program for students with behavior disorders in a rural West Virginia school system.

Saturday, 1:30 - 2:30, Vernon
Two-way Interactive Video in Rural, Small Schools: A Model for Implementation
Michael Sullivan, Deborah Jolly, David Foster, SEDL, Austin, Texas.
This presentation will provide information and rationale of new technologies; specifically technologies associated with two-way interactive video and audio in rural small schools.

Saturday, 1:30 - 2:30, Vernon
Distance Learning: A Paradigm for Certification for Special Educators
Robert Kefferstan, Office Automation Manager,
Diane Woodrum, West Virginia University.
Special educators and computing professionals in West Virginia joined forces in designing a distance learning paradigm requiring non-traditional course delivery and student evaluation.

Saturday, 1:30 - 2:30, Vernon
Were We Successful? Follow-up Study of Special Education Students in Region VII
Barbara Modisette, Consultant (Region VII Education Service Center), Longview, Texas.
This presentation relates results of a follow-up study of special education students one and two years after graduation. Relationships are shown between successful employment and

factors such as vocational courses, instructional arrangement, high school work experiences, sex and race.

Saturday, 1:30 - 2:30, Sloane
Ethical Decisions in Services for People with Disabilities
Terry Berkeley, Gallaudet University,
Barbara Ludlow, West Virginia University.
The purpose in this presentation is to seek to stimulate a discussion of ethics and ethical challenges in order to arrive at a language of ethics for use by consumers and service providers in the various disciplines that serve the field of developmental disabilities and special education in rural locales. Participants will be afforded the opportunity to participate in a discussion of ethics, reconsider the values and ideals that stimulated their involvement in this work, and to develop a language of ethics that can guide their personal or professional practice for years to come.

SATURDAY, 2:30 - 2:45, BREAK

SATURDAY, 2:45 - 3:45, CONCURRENT SESSIONS

Saturday, 2:45 - 3:45, Verelst
A Comparison of Rural Laboratory School Children from Divorced and Non-Divorced Families on a Standardized Measure of Academic Achievement
Franklin Elrod, Eastern Oregon State College,
Co-author: Mark LaMont.
This session presents the results of a study of the performance of elementary-level children of divorced and non-divorced families on the CTBS.

Saturday, 2:45 - 3:45, Verelst
Why We Left the Special Education Classroom
Gerald Wright, Christine Schnieders, NW State University.
A survey of teachers in rural northwest Missouri who have left the special education classroom will be reviewed. The focus will be on their specific reasons for exiting.

Saturday, 2:45 - 3:45, Verelst
The 21st Century and Secondary School At-Risk Students in Rural America
Robert Pittman, Western Carolina University.
The presentation will consider the manner in which future, rural trends can be expected to influence the educational decisions of secondary level at-risk students.

Saturday, 2:45 - 3:45, Percival
Training Professional Educators to Develop Knowledge and Positive Attitudes Toward Students Who Are At-Risk in Rural Areas
Kevin Koury, Gia Deasy, Cheryl Zaccagnini, West Virginia University.
This presentation will describe the development, implementation, and evaluation of an innovative and comprehensive graduate course for professional educators involved with at-risk students in rural areas of West Virginia.

Saturday, 2:45 - 3:45, Vernon
Rural Gifted Education in a Multicultural Society
Howard Spicker, Indiana University,
Ruth Fletcher, New Mexico State University,
Diane Montgomery, Oklahoma State University,
Nancy Breard, Converse College.
Project SPRING II (Special Populations Rural Information Network for the Gifted) a consortium consisting of Indiana University, New Mexico State University, and Converse College, Spartanburg, South Carolina will be described. Procedures for identifying gifted Appalachian, Latino, American Indian, and African American rural children will be discussed.

SATURDAY, 3:45 - 4:00, BREAK

SATURDAY, 4:00 - 5:00, CONCURRENT SESSIONS

Saturday, 4:00 - 5:00, Verelst
The Who, What, Where, and Why of Alternative Certification Programs in Special Education
Barbara Ludlow, Wilfred Wienke, West Virginia University,
Co-author: Steven Russell.
A national survey of all states has identified and described existing models of alternative teacher certification programs to prepare special educators.

Saturday, 4:00 - 5:00, Verelst
Finding and Keeping the Best: Three Years of Progress in Recruiting and Retaining Special Education Teachers
Victoria Bernhardt, PIE Director, Mary Cibak Jensen, California State University - Chico.
Three years of comprehensive program evaluation results reveal why a program that recruits, prepares and supports special education teachers in northeastern California was so successful.

Saturday, 4:00 - 5:00, Verelst
Become a Principal? You Must Be Kidding!
John Hurley, Western Carolina University.
This presentation describes the findings of a study which asked teachers with "principal potential" why they do, or do not, want to become principals.

Saturday, 4:00 - 5:00,Percival
Collaborative Partnership: Teaming for Rural Schools and Parents
Steven Russell, Ellen Williams, Bowling Green State University.
A powerful model for effective mainstreaming and service delivery is that of collaborative partnership. This session will focus on how this model differs from consultation, and how school personnel and parents can together meet the needs of special students in rural areas through effective use of various models of collaborative partnership. Cases will be used to illustrate.

Saturday, 6:00 - 8:00, Westbrook
ACRES Advisory Board Meeting

SUNDAY

Sunday, 8:00 - 8:00, Westbrook
ACRES Advisory Board Meeting

Have a great trip home!

ACRES Advisory Board

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presentation proposals at the registration booth.

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